

# **THE INFLUENCE OF LEADERSHIP ON THE ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS OF SAPS PRECINCTS**

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## DECLARATION

I, Sandy-Lee Chetty, hereby declare that:

- the work in this treatise is my own original work;
- all sources referred to have been documented and acknowledged ;
- ethical clearance has been granted for the study by the NMMU Central RTI (ethical clearance number H 2011 BUS EC 01); and
- this dissertation has not been previously submitted in full or partial fulfilment of the requirements for an equivalent or higher qualification at any other recognised educational institution.

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**Sandy-Lee Chetty**

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**DATE**

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## **ABSTRACT**

Public institutions have the responsibility to deliver various services to the public in the most effective and efficient manner. In South Africa, many public sector reforms were instituted after 1994. The main reasons for these reforms were to improve the access of the historically disadvantaged to public services, to increase efficiencies, to reduce costs and to reduce public debt. Despite improvements to the policy framework that underpins service delivery by the public sector, however, there are still many challenges in the delivery of public services. An improved public policy to deliver service alone is not enough if not supported by effective systems and processes for actual delivery, as well as effective leadership that leads and ensures the delivery of such services. Improving the organisational effectiveness of public institutions is therefore important in South Africa. The present study explores the role that leadership plays in the pursuit of organisational effectiveness in a selected public institution, namely the South African Police Service (SAPS).

The primary objective of this study is to improve the organisational effectiveness of SAPS in the Nelson Mandela Bay municipal area by investigating the influence of leadership style (transactional and transformational) and personality (Machiavellian, narcissistic, collectivistic, masculine and feminine) on organisational effectiveness of SAPS (as measured by overall organisational performance and the individual job performance intentions of police officers). The research design is positivistic, as the relationships among the above-mentioned variables are statistically tested.

The sample consisted of 90 police officers of senior rank drawn from five police stations in the Nelson Mandela Bay. The empirical results were reported and interpreted. These results revealed that constructive narcissistic and collectivistic leadership personality traits, as well as transformational leadership style exert a positive influence on the organisational performance

of the Nelson Mandela Bay police precincts. The empirical results also showed that collectivistic leadership personality traits influence the performance intent of these police officials positively. These results are discussed in terms of the implications they hold for the managers of police precincts. The limitations of the study are reported which provide areas for future research.

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# CHAPTER 1

## SCOPE OF THE STUDY

### 1.1. INTRODUCTION

All enterprises or institutions, whether they are in the private or public sector, continuously strive to achieve and sustain business success. For private enterprises, success at primary objective level is often expressed in terms of the maximisation of profitability, return on investment and shareholders' wealth, while success at the secondary objective level is expressed in terms of the maximisation of productivity and sales, organisational growth, socio-economic goals, etcetera (Bosch, Tait and Venter, 2006). While striving to achieve more or less similar objectives, public enterprises and institutions have the added responsibility to deliver various services to the public in the most effective and efficient manner (Bryan, Fraser, Oppenheim and Rall, 1999; World Bank Group, 2007).

In South Africa, public sector reforms instituted after 1994. The main reasons for these reforms were to improve the access of the historically disadvantaged to public services, to increase efficiencies, to reduce costs and to reduce public debt (SouthAfrica.info, 2009). Despite improvements to the policy framework that underpins service delivery by the public sector, however, there are still many challenges in the delivery of public services. According to Luthuli (2009), an improved public policy to deliver service alone is not enough if not supported by effective systems and processes for actual delivery, as well as effective leadership that leads and ensures the delivery of such services. Improving the organisational effectiveness of public institutions is therefore important in South Africa. The present study explores the role that leadership plays in the pursuit of organisational effectiveness in a selected public institution, namely the South African Police Service. The police are still referred to as the SAPS (Momborg, 2010).

## **1.2. CONCEPTUAL MODEL TO IMPROVE ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS IN PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS**

This section explores the conceptualisation of organisational effectiveness, as well as the selected determinants of organisational effectiveness. The present study suggests that leadership is an important determinant of organisational effectiveness and explores therefore this relationship.

### **1.2.1. Conceptualisation of organisational effectiveness**

Every enterprise is established with clear business goals to be achieved. These business goals can only be achieved if the business succeeds in meeting the expectations of various stakeholders, including customers (goods and services), shareholders (return on investment), employees (employment) and the general public (social responsibility) (Johnson and Scholes, 1999; Drury, 2000). In public institutions, the stakeholders are generally the taxpayers and the customers who buy goods and services from them.

Covey (2004) suggests that an enterprise that provides the required goods and services through the optimal utilisation of its resources is an effective organisation. One of the key resources in any enterprise, including public institutions, is its employees, because without the mental and physical input of employees, production or service delivery cannot take place. The job performance of employees is therefore a key determinant of the effectiveness of organisations, including public institutions. Job performance has been described as the extent to which an employee accomplishes assigned tasks (Cascio, 1992: 260). The accomplishment of tasks is however integrally linked to absenteeism and resignations (employee turnover). It is against this background that Boshoff and Arnolds (1995) define organisational effectiveness as the continuous striving to increase and maintain optimal job performance by individual employees and to decrease and maintain low turnover and absenteeism levels. The present study concurs that individual job performance is one indicator of organisational effectiveness, the other

being organisational performance. In this study, organisational effectiveness is therefore defined as managers' perceptions about their individual job performance, as well as the overall performance of their organisations.

### **1.2.2. Performance intent**

An employee's job performance is a concept that includes various job attitudes and behaviours such as job interest, work quantity, work quality, conduct, learning ability, interpersonal relations, safety, initiative, perseverance, attendance and appearance (Tharenou, 1993: 274). Carkhuff (1986) believes that when employees improve their job performance at the individual level, they will automatically improve the productivity of their units and finally the effectiveness of the organisation. All institutions need employees who are not only willing to exert high levels of effort, but also have the intention to render the required performance levels to achieve production and service delivery. In this regard, several studies have reported these predispositions and behaviours, namely perceived work effort and performance intentions, as reliable predictors of job performance (Cranny, Smith and Stone, 1992: 198; Weiner and Vardi, 1980: 89; Shore, Newton and Thornton, 1990: 64).

### **1.2.3. Leadership as a determinant of organisational effectiveness**

Burnes (2004:503) suggests that the key variable that distinguishes successful from not so successful organisations is the presence of a dynamic and effective leadership. A distinction is often made between management and leadership, but empirical evidence does not support this proposition (Yukl, 2002:5). Those, however, who distinguish between the two concepts, suggest that leaders appear to be visionary while managers have a short-term view of issues. Leaders continuously question the status quo and initiate change, while managers more often seek goal achievement within the existing policies and procedures (Navahandi, 2000; Rowe, 2001; Burnes, 2004).

One of the most influential theories on management, namely the managerial grid (later called the leadership grid) by Blake and Mouton (1985), identified two types of leadership behaviours, namely concern for people and concern for production or task. According to the managerial grid, various combinations of these two leadership behaviours result in five leadership styles, namely team, task, country club, middle-of-road and impoverished leadership. Team leadership is concerned with high productivity and high concern for people. The objective is to achieve high levels of both performance and job satisfaction. The task leadership is more concerned about production with low concern for people. The concern of task leadership is to achieve high productivity through planning, organising and directing in such a way that human considerations are kept to a minimum. Research has shown that a successful leader will exhibit both task and people-oriented leadership behaviour and that one style would dominate depending on the situation (Blake and Mouton, 1985; Burnes, 2004; Pierce and Newstrom, 2008: 195).

Burns (1978) combined history and politics with leadership theory and in the process identified two leadership styles, namely transactional and transformational leadership. The transactional leader maintains the status quo while a transformational leadership is focused on changing the status quo. Transformational leaders disturb the status quo and bring about radical changes in organisations. According to Peters and Waterman (2004: 82), a transformational leader is involved in mentoring, shaping values of an organisation, and leading by example, and is a communicator and a finder of meaning. The difference between a manager and a leader, according to Peters and Waterman (2004: 82), is that the former is concerned with bringing about stability while the latter is concerned with bringing about change. Research has however shown that transformational leadership in particular is critical for the future success of firms (Shamir, House and Arthur, 1993; Luthans, 1998). The present study investigates how leadership styles affect the effectiveness of public institutions.

Not only does leadership style influence the performance of individuals and organisations, but leadership personality does too (Pierce and Newstrom, 2008). Leadership personalities, reflecting such traits as Machiavellianism, narcissism, collectivism, masculinity and femininity have been identified as determinants of individual and organisational performance (Pierce and Newstrom, 2008).

Machiavellianism reflects a person's general strategy for dealing with other people. People with a high Machiavellian orientation feel that others can be easily manipulated in interpersonal situations. They are cunning, deceptive and use expediency as an influence technique. Highly Machiavellian orientated individuals are said to be less emotionally involved with others in sensitive issues. Gemmell and Heisler (1972) reported that highly Machiavellian leadership was negatively related to job satisfaction and positively associated with job stress which can affect individual job performance.

Narcissism refers to a distorted view of self. Narcissists feel that they need power and prestige and they enjoy manipulating others. This need leads them to positions of leadership but at the extreme level. Extreme leadership can be destructive to both individuals and organisations (Kets de Vries and Miller, 1985; Pierce and Newstrom, 2008: 445).

The collectivistic leadership personality reflects the feeling that the group or the society and not the individual should be given priority as opposed to the individualistic leadership personality that believes that the individual should be the centre of everything. Studies have shown that the collectivism-individualism leadership continuum has an influence on how leaders make decisions, consult and negotiate (Dorfman, Howell, Hibino, Lee, Tate and Bautista, 1998, in Pierce and Newstrom, 2008).

Finally, all people, including leaders therefore, have a masculine and/or feminine orientation (Hofstede, 1980; Pierce and Newstrom, 2008).

Masculinity refers to a leadership that emphasises assertiveness and acquisition of money and material objects coupled with a de-emphasis on caring for others (Pierce and Newstrom, 2008: 231). On the other hand, femininity is concerned with personal relationships, a concern for others and high quality of life. Assertiveness, materialism and caring interpersonal relationships are traits that would definitely influence how leaders lead organisations and must therefore be considered in studying organisational performance. The present study therefore also investigates the influence of leadership personality traits on the organisational effectiveness of officers in the SAPS.

### **1.3. THE PROBLEM STATEMENT**

South Africa is a country that is under constant political change; at the time of the release of political prisoner Nelson Mandela in 1994, the country was under tremendous stress to prove that the then political and social change would be a peaceful one. The South African Police Service (SAPS) as a government institution was under transformation, implementing new strategies, and changing old practices. Prior to 1994 the SAPS was used as a tool for repression during the apartheid era. SAPS used violence and instigation as means to oppress, and instil fear into many of the communities. Reports of torture and deaths occurred within the custody of the SAPS. The credibility of the SAPS prior to 1994 was generally viewed as negative by the public (Bruce, 2002).

In the new democratic dispensation in South Africa, one of the main aims of the government is to transform the police service. Transforming SAPS will require changes in management style, how the organisation is structured, the legislative framework and the culture and ethos (Rauch, Levin, Lue and Ngubeni, 1994). The present study therefore explores how organisational effectiveness in SAPS could be achieved if the above-mentioned conceptual model could be applied.

The present study argues that public institutions including SAPS are often characterised by relatively poor leadership that can affect change to improve service delivery in these institutions (Blake and Mouton, 1985; Burnes, 2004). This situation could be an indication of an imbalance between leadership styles and what is expected in the organisation. The correct balance between transformational and transactional leadership is often offered as a possible solution to improve the effectiveness of organisations (Burnes, 2004). The present study explores the possibility of this imbalance existing in the SAPS precincts in the Nelson Mandela Bay municipal area.

It has also been suggested that leadership personality is an important factor when it comes to the governance of private and public institutions in African countries (Adeyemo, 2009). Being situated in an African country, the present study investigates whether this assertion also holds true for SAPS precincts in the Nelson Mandela Bay municipal area.

#### **1.4. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES**

In order to address the above-mentioned research problem, the following research objectives were pursued:

##### **1.4.1. The primary objective**

The primary objective of this study is to improve the organisational effectiveness of SAPS in the Nelson Mandela Bay municipal area by investigating the influence of leadership style and personality on organisational effectiveness (as measured by overall organisational performance and the individual job performance intentions of officers) of SAPS.

### **1.4.2. Secondary objectives**

The secondary objectives included the following:

- To determine the role that leadership styles play in achieving improve organisational effectiveness in the SAPS;
- to determine the role that leadership personality play in achieving improve organisational effectiveness in the SAPS;

### **1.4.3. Research design objectives**

To achieve the above-mentioned research objectives, the following research design objectives were pursued:

- To conduct a thorough secondary literature review on leadership style, leadership personality and organisational effectiveness;
- to construct a preliminary research instrument to measure the above-mentioned variables;
- to conduct a mail survey of police officers in selected police precincts in the Nelson Mandela Bay municipal area;
- to capture and analyse the raw data; and
- to interpret the results, draw conclusions and discuss the strategic implications for managers of the selected municipality.

## **1.5. THE HYPOTHESES**

The following null hypotheses will be investigated:

H01a: Leadership style (as measured by transformational leadership) exerts no influence on organisational effectiveness (as measured by perceived organisational performance)



H01b: Leadership style (as measured by transformational leadership) exerts no influence on organisational effectiveness (as measured by managerial performance intentions)

H02a: Leadership style (as measured by transactional leadership) exerts no influence on organisational effectiveness (as measured by perceived organisational performance)

H02b: Leadership style (as measured by transactional leadership) exerts no influence on organisational effectiveness (as measured by managerial performance intentions)

H03a: Leadership personality (as measured by Machiavellianism) exerts no influence on organisational effectiveness (as measured by perceived organisational performance)

H03b: Leadership personality (as measured by Machiavellianism) exerts no influence on organisational effectiveness (as measured by managerial performance intentions)

H04a: Leadership personality (as measured by narcissism) exerts no influence on organisational effectiveness (as measured by perceived organisational performance)

H04b: Leadership personality (as measured by narcissism) exerts no influence on organisational effectiveness (as measured by managerial performance intentions)

H05a: Leadership personality (as measured by collectivism) exerts no influence on organisational effectiveness (as measured by perceived organisational performance)

H05b: Leadership personality (as measured by collectivism) exerts no influence on organisational effectiveness (as measured by managerial performance intentions)

H06a: Leadership personality (as measured by masculinity) exerts no influence on organisational effectiveness (as measured by perceived organisational performance)

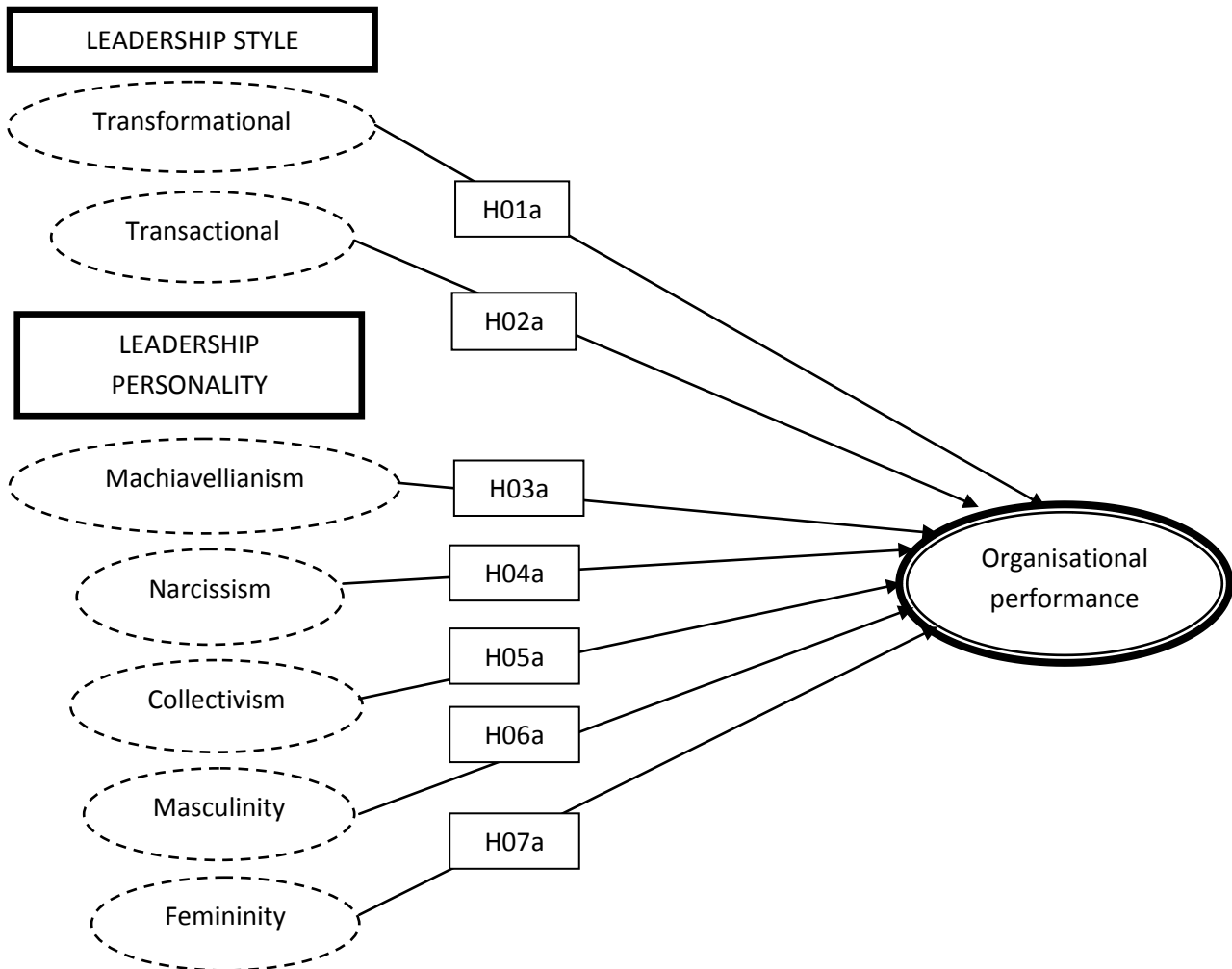
H06b: Leadership personality (as measured by masculinity) exerts no influence on organisational effectiveness (as measured by managerial performance intentions)

H07a: Leadership personality (as measured by femininity) exerts no influence on organisational effectiveness (as measured by perceived organisational performance)

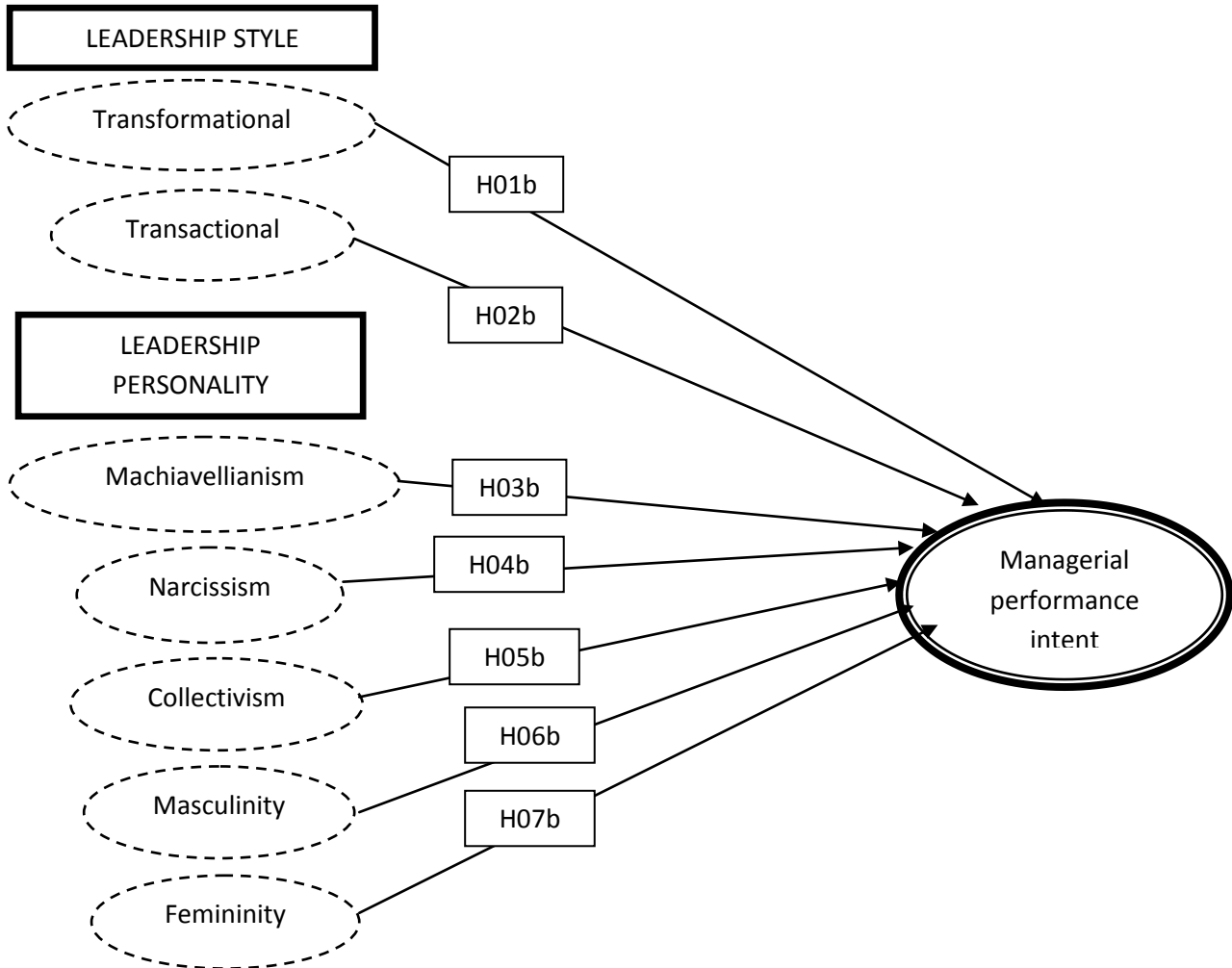
H07b: Leadership personality (as measured by femininity) exerts no influence on organisational effectiveness (as measured by managerial performance intentions)

This hypothesised model is graphically illustrated in Figures 1.1 and 1.2.

**FIGURE 1.1: MODEL TO IMPROVE ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS AS MEASURED BY ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE – THE NULL HYPOTHESES**



**FIGURE 1.2: MODEL TO IMPROVE ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS AS MEASURED BY MANAGERIAL PERFORMANCE INTENT – THE NULL HYPOTHESES**



## **1.6. METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY**

### **1.6.1. The research paradigm**

According to Collis and Hussey (2003), there are basically two research paradigms on a continuum ranging from a positivistic to a phenomenological approach. The positivistic approach attempts to explain social phenomena by establishing a relation between variables which are information converted into numbers, hence the reference to this approach as quantitative research. The phenomenological paradigm, on the other hand, suggests that social reality lies within the unit of research, and that the act of investigating the reality has an effect on that reality. This paradigm pays considerable regard to the subjective or qualitative state of the individual, hence the reference to this approach as qualitative research.

The research objective of the present study is to investigate the influence of leadership on the organisational effectiveness of a public institution. Therefore the aim, which is to quantify the significance of the relationships among the stated variables, dictated that the positivistic, or quantitative, approach be used in this study.

### **1.6.2. The sampling design**

Convenience sampling was used to select a sample of a cross-section of 90 ranked officials from the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan Municipality. All officers ranked between the levels of warrant officer to colonel were surveyed. Anonymity and confidentiality were strictly guaranteed. Questionnaires were delivered by hand to the selected participants, who in turn posted the completed questionnaires to the researcher.

### **1.6.3. The measuring instruments**

The following instruments were used to measure the variables included in the hypothesised model:

- Transactional and transformational leadership (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Moorman and Fetter, 1990);
- Machiavellianism (Christie and Geis, 1970);
- Femininity and masculinity (Bem, 1977);
- Collectivism (Matsumoto, Weissman, Preston, Brown and Kupperbausch, 1997);
- Narcissism (The NEO-PI-R instrument, Sharpe and Desai, 2001);
- Managerial Performance intentions (Boshoff and Arnolds, 1995);
- Organisational performance (Arnolds, Tait and Dayan, 2006).

The questionnaire statements were anchored to a five-point scale, which ranged from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. The STATISTICA Version 10 (2010) statistical software package was used to analyse the data.

## 1.7. TERMINOLOGY

The following variables are defined in the study as follows:

**Organisational effectiveness:** the extent to which an institution succeeds in achieving positive job performance intentions from its managers, as well as a positive assessment of the institution's overall organisational performance by these managers.

**Managerial performance intentions:** managers' intentions to improve their individual job performance.

**Perceived organisational performance:** the perceived extent to which an institution achieves sales/service targets, increases market share and generates sales of products/services with long-term profitability.

**Transformational leadership:** a leadership style characterised by inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, idealised influence and individualised consideration (Hellriegel et al., 2004).

**Transactional leadership:** a leadership style characterised by a focus on routine work transactions, such as achieving work targets and rewarding members for achieving standards and targets.

**Collectivism:** a leadership personality characterised by the extent to which an individual feels more satisfied when contributing to a group effort; places more value on the comfort and mutual support of a group; is more co-operative; prefers harmony and humility in pursuit of goals; and prefers recognition of group rather than individual performance.

**Masculinity:** the extent to which the dominant values of a society emphasise assertiveness and the acquisition of money and other material things (Luthans, 1998).

**Femininity:** the extent to which the dominant values of a society emphasise relationships among people, concern for others and interest in quality work life (Luthans, 1998).

**Narcissism:** the extent to which love of self and vanity and self-importance dominate personalities whose main interest is self-preservation and holding themselves in high esteem above everyone else.

**Machiavellianism:** the extent of manipulating people as an influence technique and the general strategy for dealing with people in interpersonal situations.

## **1.8. OUTLINE OF THE STUDY**

The treatise is divided into five chapters.

Chapter 1 outlines the scope of the study, the problem statement, the objectives, hypotheses and methodology.

In Chapter 2, the nature, importance and challenges in South African public institutions are reviewed. A literature overview is presented of the role of leadership in achieving organisational effectiveness in public institutions.

Chapter 3 is devoted to a discussion of the theoretical model to improve organisational effectiveness in SAPS.

Chapter 4 outlines the research methodology, which includes the research paradigm, sampling design and measuring instruments. Issues of the reliability and validity of the measuring instruments will also be discussed in this chapter.

The empirical results are presented.

In Chapter 5, the empirical findings are interpreted and summarised and the managerial implications are discussed.



## CHAPTER 2

### LITERATURE REVIEW ON ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

#### 2.1. INTRODUCTION

Organisational effectiveness is one of the intractable and controversial constructs in the social and behavioural sciences (Coulter, 1979). Its meaning, measuring, nature and functioning are viewed in different ways by different people (Shilbury and Moore, 2006). In this chapter, the literature is reviewed to gain an understanding of the nature, importance, and determinants of organisational effectiveness. The chapter also explores the literature on the state of organisational effectiveness in the South African public sector.

#### 2.2. CONCEPTUALISATION OF ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

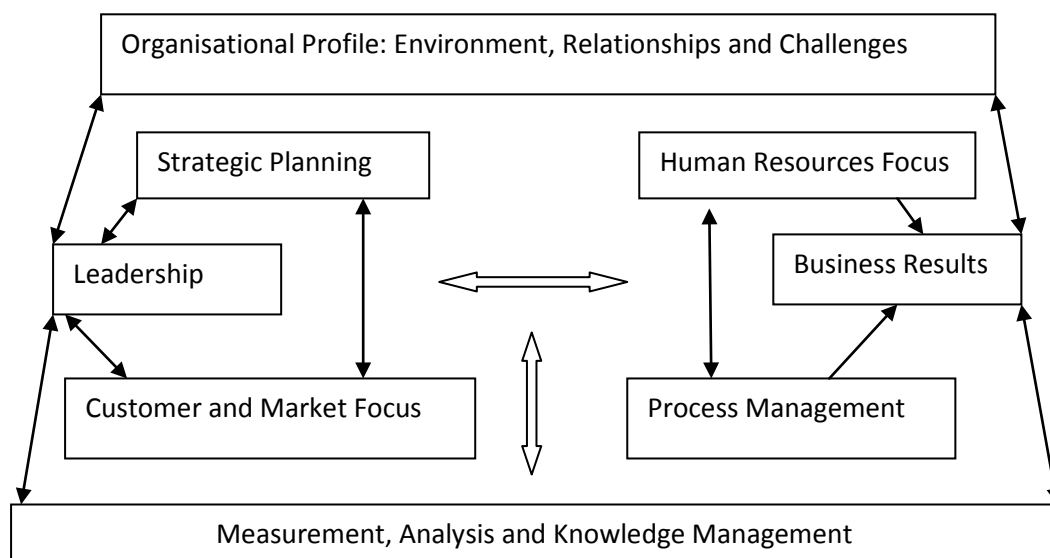
A general understanding of organisational effectiveness is how well an organisation achieves its goals. Organisational effectiveness in the business environment has been defined as how well organisations compete, how quickly they bring products to market, their statuses in the community, their attractiveness to potential clients and their profitability. In other words, organisational effectiveness considers how well an establishment does trade (The importance of organisational effectiveness, 2011).

Organisational effectiveness measures the extent to which organisations achieve their mission through their core strategies (Jamrog and Overholt, 2004; McCann, 2004). An effective organisation has the capacity and capability to get the resources required for the organisational purpose and to mobilise these resources to achieve the organisational purpose (Organisational effectiveness, 1986). According to Mott (1972), an effective

organisation also has the ability to adapt itself to the changes in the environment.

Various aspects of a business organisation are evaluated when measuring its effectiveness: good leadership, strategic planning, customer and market focus, human resource focus, business results and process management (Baldrige, 2011). Figure 2.1 illustrates this conceptualisation of organisational effectiveness in a business environment.

**FIGURE 2.1: ASPECTS OF ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS IN A BUSINESS FIRM**



Source: Baldrige (2011)

According to Figure 2.1, the owners and managers of a business firm identify their area of business (sector, industry and market), the need that the business would satisfy, and the purpose of the business, in other words, the organisation's profile. The owners and managers also set up relationships with possible allies, suppliers, employees and customers. The owners and managers also profile the organisation's challenges in terms of its vision, mission and goals. The latter include entering a market, growing and maintaining a market share, staying ahead of competitors and managing internal challenges.

In order to sustain a successful organisational profile, there are key factors that need to be managed effectively. These factors are leadership, strategic planning, customer and market focus, human resource focus, measuring, analysis and knowledge management, process management, and business results.

The organisation's leadership shapes identity, how the organisation makes sense of its work and its environment, what relationships matter, what feedback counts and what information is available. The leaders' views and behaviours are shaped by the organisation's norms and boundaries. The leadership role therefore is to focus organisational attention, create organisational space, contribute to the process (Malby, 2007).

Strategic planning, whether long-term or short-term, determines where the organisation is going to, giving it purpose and direction. Strategic planning establishes goal and objectives for the organisation within the boundaries of the organisation mission and within a specific time frame. The focus is on the organisation as a whole. One key aspect is that strategic planning is dependent on the nature of the organisation's leadership.

Customer and market focus refers to the identification of customer needs and desires, whether it is aesthetics, functionality, or quality of brand in order to effectively design and maintain products that meet the needs of the customer. This facet of effectiveness drives the product features, time from order to delivery, logistics, research and development and customer services. This aspect of effectiveness appeals to the three aspects of market strategy, distribution, promotion, and price. This aspect of effectiveness once again involves the whole organisation.

Measuring, analysis and knowledge management refer to the way an organisation selects data, gathers information, and analyses and improves its data. This allows an organisation to improve its performance through

consistent evaluation of information. Senior leadership is responsible for identifying and prioritising initiatives to provide an effective performance measurement system that aligns and improves performance throughout the organisation.

Human resource focus refers to the ability of management to access the capabilities of the workforce by using their talents and skills to further the progress of the organisation. This focus involves the engagement, management, supervision, training, development, talent management and initiatives in order to align the human resources with the business strategy of the organisation.

Process management involves the way in which an organisation designs, manages, maintains and improves its work systems and work process to deliver customer value and achieve organisational success. Work systems include the workforce, the key suppliers and partners, contractors, collaborators and other components of the supply chain needed to produce and deliver products, business and support processes. Work processes are the most important internal processes such as product design and delivery, customer support, supply chain management, business and support processes.

Business results are in totality all of the above factors that amount to effectiveness. These results are usually measured and compared with those of competitors with similar product offerings.

### **2.3. MEASURING ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS**

Various models to measure organisational effectiveness have been advanced. These models include:

- The Herman Miller Inc. model of organisational effectiveness (see model of Figure 2.2)

- Campbell's (1977) model
- rational goal model (Quinn and Rohrbaugh, 1983)
- open systems model (Quinn and Rohrbaugh, 1983)
- internal process model (Quinn and Rohrbaugh, 1983)
- human relations model (Quinn and Rohrbaugh, 1983)
- competing values model(Quinn 1988,Quinn and Rohrbaugh, 1983)
- system resource model (Yuchtman and Seashore, 1967)
- bargain model (Cunningham, 2001)
- managerial process model (Cunningham, 2001)
- organisational development (Cunningham, 2001)
- structural functional model (Gross, 1966)
- functional model (Cunningham, 2001)
- strategic constituencies model (Thompson, 1967)
- legitimacy model (Cummings and Staw, 1984)
- fault-driven model (Cameron, 1986)
- high-performance model (Cameron,1986)

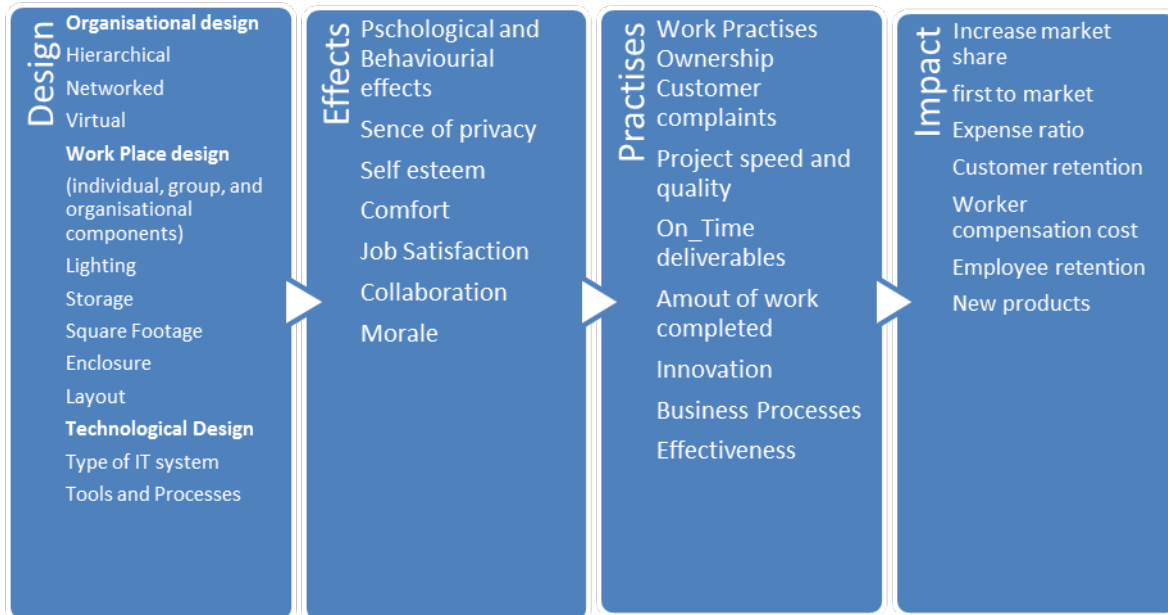
Each of these models is now briefly discussed.

### **2.3.1. Herman Miller Inc. model of organisational effectiveness**

Figure 2.2 illustrates the model proposed by O' Neil of Herman Miller Inc. The model suggests that there are certain organisational, workplace and technological designs that should be in place to pursue organisational effectiveness. Effectiveness is then measured by the extent to which certain

psychological and behavioural effects, workplace practices, and business outcomes are achieved.

**FIGURE 2.2: MEASUREMENT MODEL FOR ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS**



Source: (Herman Miller Inc. 2001)

### 2.3.2. Campbell's (1977) model

Campbell (1977) lists over 30 different criteria for the measurement of organisational effectiveness. These criteria can be grouped into the following four categories:

- Financial and operational measurement: which include measures of productivity, efficiency, quality, profitability, growth and turnover.
- Strategic measurements, such as overall effectiveness, stability, flexibility, adaptability, goal consensus, goal planning, managerial interpersonal skill, managerial task skill and evaluation by external entities.
- Human resource measurements, which focus on accidents, absenteeism, motivation, job satisfaction, moral, conflict, cohesion,

rule/norm congruency, achievement emphasis, training and development, and human resource as a strategic partner.

- Process measurement: which includes information management, preparedness (of persons and systems to handle any situation), and internalisation of goals, utilisation of environment, and participation and shared influence.

### **2.3.3. Rational goal model**

An organisation is effective to the extent that it accomplishes its stated goals. Goals may be stipulated financially (profit) or operationally (productivity). The rational goal approach focuses on the ability of an organisation to achieve its goals. Scott (1987) defines goals as conceptions of desired ends – conditions that participants attempt to effect through their performance of task activities. The organisation is evaluated by comparing the goals accomplished with those planned for. This approach focuses on the attainment of a goal, and most organisations (excluding non-profit organisations) are profit driven, the attainment of a profit or turnover surplus would be considered a direct measurement of the goal theory. The use of this approach emphasises the ends rather than the means.

### **2.3.4. Open system model**

An organisation is effective to the degree that it acquires inputs from its environment and has outputs accepted by its environment. The focus is the acquiring of resources and the conversion thereof into products and services that meet the desires and expectations of the customer. The open system model establishes a clear connection between inputs and performance; it does also rely on the external system. The open system turns the focus of effectiveness to resources and the conversion process, rather than the bottom line as in the case of the above goal theory. Profitability becomes a partial measure of effectiveness, or as rather loosely termed by the research a side

effect. The open systems approach focuses on the means rather than the end (goals).

### **2.3.5. Internal process model**

This model focuses on the effectiveness of the internal transformation process. The internal process model, formerly known as the closed system, focuses (Scott, 1987) on the internal interaction, order, and control of the organisation. Goals are set, and there are policies, procedures, and behavioural expectations to follow through in attainment of the set goals. This process is dually monitored and is a controlled measure; therefore efficiency is the measure of competency, conforming to behaviour and culture in attainment of the organisation's goals and objectives. This is one of the older models still applied in some organisations which are mostly governmental as it is bureaucratic in its approach.

### **2.3.6. Human relations model**

This model focuses on the development of the organisation's personnel. The human resource department not only exists in recruitment and selection of personnel, but is also strategically aligned with the organisation as a business partner. Within this model, the workforce becomes the focal point of measurement for organisational effectiveness, where factors of engagement, knowledge of workers, employee retention, staff turn-over, and job succession and job satisfaction become measurable (Jamrog and Overholt, 2005).

### **2.3.7. The competing values model**

This model requires that an organisation scrutinise the balance among the above four effectiveness models. In this model there are three sets of competing values. The first is the tension between internal versus external focus. The more the organisation focuses on one, the less it can concentrate on the other. The competing values approach takes into consideration



diverse perspectives that exist within an organisation (due to the people factor); it takes the perspective and organises it into a holistic approach. (Quinn 1988, Quinn and Rohrbaugh, 1983).

### **2.3.8. Systems resource model**

This model analyses the decision-makers' capability to efficiently distribute resources among various sub-systems' needs. Naturalists developed a theory whereby it was agreed that nature is a system that is interrelated and interdependent. With the study of management and organisations, theorists have applied this theory to organisational effectiveness, which translates that the organisation is a large system that is composed of small sub-systems, which drive the organisation towards sustainability and overall effectiveness. The systems resources model defines the organisation as a network of interrelated sub-systems. The following need to be satisfied in terms of the organisation's survival:

- the ability of the organisation to co-ordinate relationships among the various sub-systems/departments;
- the ability of the organisation to exploit its environment in acquisition of scarce and valued resources;
- the ability of the organisation to respond to feedback regarding its effectiveness in the environment;
- the ability of the organisation to evaluate the effect of its decisions;
- the ability of the organisation' system to accomplish its goals;
- the ability of the system's decision-makers to perceive and interpret, the real properties of the external environment;
- the ability of the system to produce a certain specified output by customer design;
- the ability to maintain internal daily activities;

### **2.3.9. The bargaining model**

Each organisational problem requires a specific allocation of resources. The bargaining model presumes that an organisation is a cooperative, competitive, and a resource distributing system. The underlying assumption is that decisions, problems and goals are more useful when shared by a greater number of people (Cunningham, 2001).

The bargaining model makes use of the internal competitiveness and the collective use of information and interaction between different components (human interaction, the flow of information, time and cost elements) to measure effectiveness. The interaction and cooperation between managers and leaders in bargaining for resources such as information assist in the process of problem solving and goal attainment.

The overall outcome is a function of the particular strategies selected by the various decision-makers in their bargaining relationships. This model measures the ability of decision-makers to acquire and utilise resources in responding to problems that are important to them and the organisation's progression. This is purely based on a relationship and resource management that fuels the success and effectiveness of an organisation.

### **2.3.10. Managerial process model**

The managerial process model used the foundation of management principles to manage, improve, sustain, and push the organisation towards progress and overall effectiveness. According to Fayol's (1949), the basic elements of management are planning, organising, commanding, control and coordination; these are adaptable to any industry, and any organisation. These elements harmonise the activities of the organisation, they do not function separately, but as components in the systems and sub-systems. The managerial process model assesses the capability and productivity of various managerial processes such as decision-making, planning and budgeting, etc. The

managerial process model is based on the intuitive concept of substantial rationality, which inter-relates the drives, impulses, wishes, feelings, needs, and values of the individuals to the functional goals of the organisation (Cunningham, 2001).

### **2.3.11. Organisational development model**

This model appraises the organisation's ability to work as a team and to fit the needs of its members. The model focuses on developing practices to foster supervisory behaviour with a focus on and interest for the concerns of workers; team spirit, group loyalty, and teamwork among workers and between workers and management; confidence, trust and communication among workers and between workers and management; and more freedom to set their own objectives (Cunningham, 2001).

The model further employs the process diagnosis (where are we?), goal-setting and planning (What aim do we hope to achieve?), implementation (how will we plan to achieve these goals ?) and evaluation (how will we know when we do get there?). Moreover, the model is concerned with changing beliefs, attitudes, values, and organisational structures. New technologies and challenges become adaptable to the individuals within the organisation. The organisational development model makes use of the management by objectives as opposed to control (bureaucratic) management.

### **2.3.12. Structural functional model**

The structural functional approach tests the durability and flexibility of the organisation's structure for responding to a diversity of situations and events. The Structural Functional Model attempts to understand the structural patterns developed by the organisation to maintain and grow (Gross, 1966). This is based on the development of a hierarchical system, a set of cultural, norms and values within an organisation. Without a set system and culture the organisation will fail to maintain favour with its stakeholders. The

structural model is based on social forces. This model enforces security, and sets up boundaries within its environment. It enforces the system of authority (leadership), maintains formal and informal relations (maintaining a sub-system), seeks effective policy-making, and effectively orientating the stakeholder to the norms and beliefs of the organisation.

### **2.3.13. Functional model**

With the functional approach, an organisation's effectiveness is determined by the social consequences of its activities. The crucial question to be answered is: how well do the organisation's activities serve the needs of its client groups? The appraisal of an organisation's effectiveness should consider whether these activities are functions or dysfunctions in fulfilling the organisation's goals (Cunningham, 2001).

The approach focuses on each system having a purpose/ goal, therefore each goal has a set of activities/resources to achieve its purpose, together with a method of alignment of activities, and finally since the purpose is on-going an on-going set of methods are applied to goal attainment. The functional model, defines its goal and evaluates the accomplishments thereof.

### **2.3.14. Strategic constituencies' model**

An organisation would aim to at least minimally satisfy the most important constituents (or stakeholders) in its environment. The strategic constituencies are elements of the environment whose opposition or support can hinder or enhance the organisation's goal attainment. Taken broadly, the environment is both internal and external so employee groups and management functions can be strategic constituencies as much as external groups (Ledingham and Bruning, 2001).

### **2.3.15. Legitimacy model**

An organisation survives by acting in a manner seen by other organisations as legitimate or engages in legitimate activities to survive (Cummings and Staw, 1984).

### **2.3.16. Fault-driven model**

The organisation adopting the fault-driven model of effectiveness seeks to eliminate traces of ineffectiveness in its internal functioning. This is an on-going process of continuous improvement. Minor and/or major errors are evaluated, and systems are changed and adapted to better the processing and activities used to support the organisation's goal attainment.

### **2.3.17. High performing model**

Finally, the organisation as a high performing system compares itself with other similar organisations. A benchmarking system is used to maintain a standard, or also improve on it and adapt it to the organisation in the industry. It uses a best practice system to solidify its effectiveness as an organisation.

## **2.4 TOOLS/ TECHNIQUES TO IMPROVE ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS**

The literature reveals a few commonly used tools/techniques to improve organisational effectiveness. They include the following:

- The Balanced Score Card (BSC)
- The Six Sigma process – Quality management approach
- Customer value analyses and customer relationship measurement
- Activity based costing
- The Five-Step Model of integrating, planning, improvement and assessment (I.M.P.R.O.V.E)

### **2.4.1. The Balanced Score Card (BSC)**

The Balanced Scorecard (BSC) is an approach to strategic management. It is a management and measurement system that enables organisations to clarify their vision and strategy and translate them into action (Kaplan and Norton, 1996). The BSC sets up a measurable set of strategic goals and performance drivers that steer the company towards the attainment of its goals. Developed by Drs Robert Kaplan (Harvard Business School) and David Norton, it provides a clear prescription about what companies should measure in order to bring 'balance' to the financial perspective.

Kaplan and Norton's (1996) BSC approach to performance measurement, suggests that defining the particular strategy and how this strategy is to be implemented is the best way to assess organisational effectiveness. It provides feedback on the internal business processes, the customer, learning/innovation and financial outcomes in order to continuously improve strategic performance and results.

With the BSC, metrics are developed and data are collected and analysed from four perspectives as mentioned above. It allows information to be gathered about the internal business process and improvement or re-evaluation thereof, learning and innovation with regard to product and service delivery and improvement on processes, customers' needs and requirements for a particular product or service, and financial perspective on return on investment (shareholder), profitability (company) and market related costing of products/services (customer).

### **2.4.2. Six sigma process**

Six Sigma is a rigorous and systematic methodology that utilises information (management by facts) and statistical analysis to measure and improve a company's operational performance, practices and systems by identifying and preventing 'defects' in manufacturing and service related processes in order to

anticipate and exceed expectations of all stakeholders to accomplish effectiveness. Six-Sigma can be understood/perceived at three levels:

- Metric (the pursuit of 3.4 defects per million opportunities (DPMO))
- Methodological (the use of structured problem-solving roadmaps and tools, for example DMAIC and DFSS)
- Philosophical (a philosophy seeking to reduce variation in your business and to make the customer the main focus).

DMAIC refers to defining the problem, measuring process performance, analysing the process and finding the root cause, improving the process by changing or reevaluating the root cause and controlling the improved process. DFSS refers to the design of Six-Sigma; it is a process that designs a product or service for the commercial market with a measurable high performance. The focus is on the design of a product/service set to the requirements of the customer and the measurement of the success rate and reliability of the design of the product/service. The improved organisational effectiveness brought about by Six-Sigma leads to defect reduction and vast improvement in profits, employee morale, quality of product and customer focused/ stakeholder involvement. The Six-Sigma processes emphasise the importance of the internal business process in producing goods that meet the expectation of the customer.

### **2.4.3. Customer value analysis and customer relationship management**

The focus of the above measuring tool is the customer, who is an external factor. The organisation measures its performance according to the value it creates and the maintenance of its customer relationships. Most service industries measure their organisational effectiveness by a customer satisfaction indicator and the customer retention rate. These techniques are used in an open system, where a customer gives valuable feedback, which influences overall performance. Factors used in measuring the organisational

effectiveness may be linked to the perceived value of the product/service, the brand value and as previously stated the customer retention, repeat purchases of the product/ service and long-term relationships. Measuring the customer perspective has become an increasingly important facet of organisational effectiveness and business management, as the customer can determine the success or failure of the organisation as it is an external stakeholder to the organisation (Rust, Zeithaml and Lemon, 2000).

#### **2.4.4. Activity based management approach**

Activity Based measurements provide a financially based measurement of effectiveness. This approach looks at the overhead cost(production cost) of what is being produced or manufactured by the organisation. Overhead cost includes cost of raw material, cost of labour, cost of machine hours, and production time. The underlying assumption is proving a relationship between overheads and productivity, the economies of scales and dis-economies of scale. Activity Based Costing links expenses, resources and activities the organisation performs to a measurable cost. ABC focuses on the management of process to maximise profit and improve the perceived value to the customer. This discipline includes cost-driver analysis, activity analysis, and performance measurement. ABC then is a way of measuring which of the organisation's activities generate revenues in excess of costs and, as a result, provide keen insight into what is really providing value for customers (Meyer, 2002). The ABC gains insight on costing and an indicator of its internal competitive advantage, for organisational effectiveness.

#### **2.4.5. The Five-Step Model of integrating, planning, improvement and assessment (I.M.P.R.O.V.E)**

The model firstly involves five planning questions:

- Where are we now? (assessing current data);
- Where do we want to be? (formulate vision and goals);
- How will we know when we get there? (formulate measures);



- How far do we have to go? (conduct a gap analysis); and
- How do we get there? (formulate improvement tools and approaches).

After clarifying the five planning questions, the seven I.M.P.R.O.V.E steps are undertaken to analyse a service or process, followed by the identification and implementation of improvement opportunities. The seven I.M.P.R.O.V.E steps are:

- Identify and select process for improvement;
- Map the critical process;
- Prepare the analysis of process performance;
- Research and develop possible solutions;
- Organise and implement improvements;
- Verify and document the results; and
- Evaluate and plan for continuous improvement

I.M.P.R.O.V.E is primarily a process improvement or reengineering technique to improve organisational effectiveness. It relies heavily on team work. The I.M.P.R.O.V.E model, once again has a broad perspective of measuring organisational effectiveness, but its strength once again lies in the process of continuous improvement, learning and innovation. This perspective is an internal perspective to measuring organisational effectiveness.

## **2.5. ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE FORCE**

Since 1994, South Africa has been in a process of constant political and social change from the apartheid system to a democratic one. The South African Police Service (SAPS), as a government institution, has also been under transformation from being a tool for oppression and protecting the apartheid system; to one that serves and protects the South African population. Transforming the SAPS has been requiring changes in management style, organisational structure, legislative framework, culture,

and ethos (Rauch, Levin, Lue and Ngubeni, 1994). Hence organisational effectiveness has been a facet of SAPS that is constantly changing and one that requires continuous improvement.

The core purpose of the SAPS, according to the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (Act 108 of 1996), is the following:

- To prevent, combat and investigate crime;
- To maintain public order;
- To protect and secure the inhabitants of the Republic and their property;  
and
- To uphold and enforce the law.

In terms of the above, the SAPS formulated its mission statement as follows:

- To prevent anything that may threaten the safety and security of any community;
  - To investigate all crime that may threaten the safety and security of any community;
  - To ensure that criminals are brought to justice; and
  - To participate in efforts to address the root causes of crime.
- (SAPS Mission statement,2010)

Organisational effectiveness for the SAPS would therefore be the extent to which it fulfils its constitutional mandate and its own mission.

Prior to 1994 the SAPS was not a credible entity and was rife with corruption. The aim at the time was to create a politically stable nation with a credible public sector defence service. The former eleven districts' policing services were amalgamated to form what is known today as the South African Police Service.

The Institute for Security Studies has reported on corruption in the SAPS and efforts that were implemented to counter it. Since disbanding the Anti-Corruption Unit (ACU) in 2002, the SAPS have struggled to implement an anti-corruption strategy. Indicators suggest a lack of will on the part of both the SAPS and government leadership to counter corruption, causing a loss of public faith in police institutions. For this reason, the next chapter explores a hypothesised leadership model to improve the organisational effectiveness of SAPS.

## **2.6. CONCLUSION**

In this chapter, organisational effectiveness as a concept was explored. This included the conceptualisation, measurement and tools/techniques to improve organisational effectiveness. The effectiveness of SAPS as an organisation was also briefly reviewed. This review ended with the indication that leadership as a determinant of the organisational effectiveness of the SAPS should be investigated. The next chapter therefore investigates a hypothesised model to improve the organisational effectiveness of SAPS.

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **THEORETICAL MODEL TO IMPROVE THE ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE**

#### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

In the previous chapter, leadership was identified as one of the key determinants of improved organisational effectiveness in the South African Police Service (SAPS). The present study suggests that the organisational effectiveness of SAPS can be improved by, firstly, identifying which leadership personality traits and styles the officials in these institutions exhibit and, secondly, investigating how these personality traits and styles influence the effectiveness of these organisations. The present study therefore investigates, firstly, the influence of transitional and transformational leadership styles and, secondly, the influence of Machiavellian, narcissistic, collectivistic (versus individualistic), masculine and feminine leadership personality traits on the organisational effectiveness of selected police precincts in the Nelson Mandela Bay municipal area.

#### **3.2 THE INFLUENCE OF LEADERSHIP ON ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS**

In this section the conceptualisations and importance of leadership are reported more specifically, the theoretical foundations of the hypothesised relationships between leadership styles and personality, on one hand, and organisational effectiveness on the other hand are discussed.

##### **3.2.1. Conceptualisations and importance of leadership**

There are various conceptualisations of leadership. “Leadership has been defined as an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect their mutual purpose” (Rost, 1993:102). According to

Rost (1993), Leadership is an influence relationship that has two characteristics:

- It is multidirectional,
- It is coercive.

The former indicates that influence flows in all directions and not just top down. The latter indicates that it is not based on authority, power, or dictatorial actions; but is based on influential behaviours, allowing anyone in the relationship to freely agree or disagree and ultimately to either commit or not commit to the relationship. Generally, leadership has been conceptualised as the process of influencing, motivating, supporting, facilitating, and encouraging followers in pursuit of goals through the means put together by all members involved (Drouillard, Grobler and Kleiner, 1996; Brewster, Dowling, Grobler, Holland and Warnich, 2000).

According to Robinson and Rose (2004), in order to support “personal responsibility throughout the organisation, leaders will have to play three roles that can be defined as that of prophet, priest, and a contemporary title – facilitator”. In terms of this definition the prophet speaks with steadfast honesty, creating a vision of a possible outcome/future. The purpose of honesty and vision is to create a relationship of trust and establish a common ground. The role of priest is reminding his followers of who they are, recognising their value. The third role of a leader is to be a facilitator, in creating an environment of simplicity, boosting a lagging environment, instilling self-belief, listening, better equipping the followers, and creating an attitude of acceptance. Leaders who generate consciousness of choices give power to their organisations to be mature and thus more sustainable. Leadership is concerned with performing in such a way that the emotional processes are transformed so that anxiety is no longer included in the system or process and ingenious responses are possible.

Leadership is sometimes defined as a functional relationship, a basic give and take relationship of quid pro quo, to influence and be influenced. It is also for the most part concerned with creating an ever greater level of maturity in the system (Robinson and Rose, 2004:4-5).

According to Daft and Lane (2008), effective leaders and effective followers may sometimes be the same people, playing different roles at different times and leadership is shared among leaders and followers, with everyone fully engaged and accepting higher levels of responsibility. Daft and Lane (2008) also describe leadership as an influential relationship, which is multidimensional and non-coercive; leadership is described as influencing people to a common vision.

Leadership is a paradigm that aims at maintaining stability. The best leaders accept the inevitability of change and crisis and recognise them as potential sources of energy and self-renewal (Daft and Lane, 2008:8).

### **3.2.2. Leadership styles**

The literature generally points to four leadership styles: classic leadership, transactional leadership, transformational leadership and organic leadership (Avery, 2004).

#### **3.2.2.1 Classic leadership style**

The classic leadership style is defined as the oldest form of leadership. It is very authoritative and has very low levels of follower involvement. The follower essentially responds to the leader out of fear. Dictatorship is an extreme form of the classic paradigm. The members idealise the leader, the general reputation and/or outlook is that of a “phenomenal person”.(Manuel dialogue:Silliman, 2006 and Kant,1965) This paradigm holds the leader solely responsible for decision-making and control, the leader is the power component of the relationship between him and her and his/her followers.

The disadvantage of this paradigm is that followers become dependent. Unlike the other paradigms, this paradigm is a very stable paradigm, best used in old line management organisation and bureaucratic environments.

### **3.2.2.2. Transactional leadership style**

This type of leadership evolved as a new paradigm as a result of the leader's belief that the follower should be actively involved in the leader/follower relationship. In this type of relationship the follower can communicate with the leader and the commitment from the follower is therefore higher. This type of leadership has a more persuasive nature as it is used to influence the follower to attain certain goals. The challenge here is that although the leadership has higher commitment from the followers it is still limited to interaction. The leader still has the decision-making responsibility, and is still the power holder in the leader/follower relationship. This paradigm also leans towards bureaucratic organisations where followers have tendencies of dependence. Commitment from the followers may dwindle as leaders have the ability to limit follower involvement.

Transactional leadership helps organisations achieve their current objectives more efficiently by linking job performance to valued rewards and by ensuring employees have the resources needed to get the job done (Zhu et al, 2005).

### **3.2.2.3. Transformational leadership style**

Also known as visionary leadership paradigm, this paradigm was developed to adequately adapt a leader for a changing, complex or fast paced environment. The buy-in of the follower is achieved by captivating the follower with a vision, aligning the desired outcome with both the leader's and the follower's goal. The techniques associated with obtaining commitment are to capture the emotions and minds of the followers. The commitment becomes an emotional commitment. The leadership/follower relationship becomes balanced in this paradigm as the follower has a participative role in setting the vision and actively participates in the decision-making process. However

creating a unified entity can be problematic in an ever-changing environment which embraces diversity. Another challenge is that member commitment is not guaranteed. This type of paradigm relies heavily on ensuring follower commitment, but ultimately responsibility and accountability lie on the shoulders of the leader.

Visionary leaders create a strategic vision of some future state, communicate that vision to followers, model the vision by acting consistently, and build commitment towards the vision (Avolio, 1999; McShane and Von Glinow, 2000).

Some research indicates (Zhu et al, 2005) that visionary leadership will result in high levels of cooperation, commitment, trust, motivation, and hence performance in the new organisational environment.

#### **3.2.2.4. Organic leadership style**

The organic paradigm is a shifting paradigm, it is mainly associated with diverse fast-paced ever-changing environments. This paradigm is used to accommodate culturally diverse followers. Communication becomes a critical factor in development, as the leadership role changes from charismatic to integrator and facilitator. This type of leadership omits boundaries and limitations, but serves a common goal. The key driver of success in this paradigm is the interactive role between leader and follower, a partnership evolves as a result. Characteristics of the relationship are trust, acceptance, and respect. There is no sole leader in an organic paradigm but rather, the group relies on the people who step forward with leadership qualities. Decisions are made based on consensus. The members have a high degree of power as a result of this paradigm of leadership. Accountability and responsibility are shared amongst members.

The effects of leadership on performance are also important because leadership is viewed by some researchers (e.g. Zhu et al, 2005) as a key driving force for improving a firm's performance. Effective leadership is seen



as a potent source of management development and sustained competitive advantage for organisational performance improvement (Avolio, 1999; Lado , Boyd, Wright, 1992; Rowe, 2001).

The present study argues that it is firstly necessary to improve the transactional and transformational leadership styles of police officials before organic leadership can be pursued. Based on the preceding literature review therefore, it is hypothesised that:

H1a: Transactional leadership style would influence organisational effectiveness (as measured by organisational performance) positively

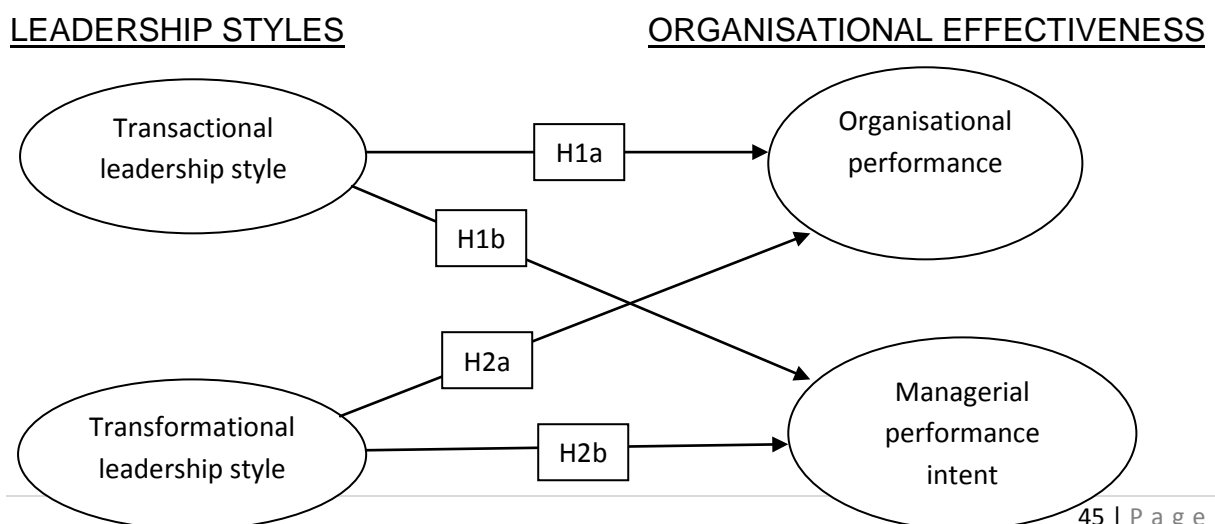
H1b: Transactional leadership style would influence organisational effectiveness (as measured by managerial performance intent) positively

H2a: Transformational leadership style would influence organisational effectiveness (as measured by organisational performance) positively

H2b: Transformational leadership style would influence organisational effectiveness (as measured by managerial performance intent) positively

The above-mentioned hypotheses are graphically depicted in Figure 1.

**FIGURE 3: HYPOTHESISED MODEL TO IMPROVE ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS – THE INFLUENCE OF LEADERSHIP STYLES**



### **3.2.3. Leadership personalities**

Why do some become leaders and others not? Do these people develop a leadership skill; is there a specific profile for becoming a leader? What are the general characteristics of a leader? These questions are specifically aimed at proving that leaders are set apart from followers, but also aims at proving that a leader can be evolved as a result of development and grooming certain personality traits.

Leadership personality influences the performance of individuals and organisations (Pierce and Newstrom, 2008). Leadership personality traits, such as Machiavellianism, narcissism, collectivism (versus individualism), masculinity and femininity have been reported to influence individual and organisational performance (Pierce and Newstrom, 2008).

#### **3.2.3.1 Machiavellianism**

Machiavellianism describes an individual who has an immoral reputation for dealing with others to accomplish his/her own objectives, and for manipulating others for his/her own purposes (Christie and Geis, 1970). It refers to someone who is sneaky, conniving, deceitful, and untrustworthy. A Machiavellian orientation is an individual's general strategy for dealing with other people and the degree to which individuals feel they can manipulate others in interpersonal situations (Robinson and Shaver, 1973). Machiavellians employ aggressive, manipulative, exploiting and devious means to achieve personal or organisation objectives (Calhoun, 1969).

Machiavellianism describes an individual that has an immoral reputation for dealing with others to accomplish his/her own objectives, and for manipulating others for his/her own purposes (Christie and Geis, 1970:1). A Machiavellian person is often thought to be indifferent to ethical and moral considerations in the same way that a sociopath is incapable of sympathy or compassion. Machiavellians do not accept the premise that people should do what they

believe in but should instead believe in what they do (Christie and Geis, 1970).

High Machiavellian (High Mach) leaders were reported to motivate their groups to higher levels of group performance compared with low Machiavellian (Low Mach) leaders. Gemmel and Heisler (1972) found that High Mach leaders gave more orders than Low Mach leaders. High Mach leaders were also least concerned about group maintenance and reducing tension within groups. These behaviours would negatively influence the individual, group and organisational performances. It is therefore hypothesised that:

H3a: Machiavellian leadership personality would influence organisational effectiveness (as measured by organisational performance) negatively

H3b: Machiavellian leadership personality would influence organisational effectiveness (as measured by managerial performance intent) negatively.

### **3.2.3.2. Narcissism**

The concept of narcissism derives from psychodynamic formulations such as a pathological form of self-love (Freud, 1914), or personality development, whereby “narcissistic wounds” sustained in childhood may lead to an arrest in development and increased shame-driven rage (Kohut, 1977). It has been argued that the construct of narcissism is compromised by the contrast between vague psychoanalytic terminology and theory, and more observable elements of the concept (Bradlee and Emmons, 1991; Watson and Morris, 1991). However as a means of encapsulating the behavioural grandiosity and perceived entitlement of an individual, the concept of narcissism is a very useful concept.

The general characteristics that are associated with a narcissistic personality are: lack of empathy; hyper-sensitive to criticism; impulsiveness; lack of sense of humour; naivety and passivity; pessimism and religiousness; secretive and self-contradictory; stingy and having strange work habits; unusual eating habits and sense of time; amoral/conscienceless; authoritarian and care only about appearances; contemptuous and critical of others; cruel and lack of recognition of own feelings; envy and competitiveness; feeling entitled and grandiosity; flirtatious or seductive; and disliking loneliness.

There are three levels of narcissism: reactive narcissism, self-deceptive and constructive narcissism (De Vries and Miller, 2008). Narcissist leaders exhibit personality traits of pretentiousness, insensitivity, cunning, and mercilessness. The behaviour display and attitude toward others are that they are entitled to everything in trust, respect, and love. These leaders are condescending in their approach to others, and generally overlook the desires of their followers.

A self-deceptive narcissistic personality is slightly more conservative and risk hesitant, the predominant personality traits are lacking compassion, being self-doubting, having a fear of failure and being preoccupied with his/her own needs. A constructive narcissistic personality, in comparison with the former two definitions has the following personality traits, a sense of approval, is less manipulative, displays determination, and has vigour.

Reactive narcissists are driven by the desire to compete, they are performance and task motivated. This type of leader attracts followers that use servile flattery (sycophant). A reactive narcissist does not have a sympathetic nature and will willingly exploit others in the quest for their own progression. Reactive narcissists regularly shift the blame and do not take responsibility when things go wrong. The self-deceptive narcissists are apprehensive in decision-making, and they are viewed as transactional leaders as they display behaviour of self-advancement (De Vries and Miller, 2008). Narcissism (constructive narcissism to a lesser degree) is generally

destructive to the psycho-social health of groups and would hurt organisational performance (Resick, 2009; Godkin and Allcorn, 2009).

Constructive narcissists are effective mentors and are inspirational. Their personality traits often encountered are stubbornness, pride, and distaste for censure. Self-destructive narcissists prefer non-critical followers, followers who are easily influenced. Personality and behavioural traits commonly found in self-destructive narcissists are that they are guarded, risk hesitant, lack tenacity, and prefer non-critical followers. Reactive narcissists are poor listeners, they are infuriated by criticism, often use scapegoats to take the blame, they are confrontational when provoked, and see no issue in overwhelming and humiliating their opponents (De Vries and Miller, 2008; Maccoby, 2000).

What sets a narcissistic leader apart from other leaders is the self-seeking need to acquire power and admiration. They consistently seek recognition and credit, and shift blame when failure occurs. They emerge as leaders in unusual circumstances and situations, as they are power hungry; they are somewhat problematic to the organisation and adversely affect employees in a negative manner (Brunell et al, 2008; Conger, 2008).

Against the background of the preceding literature review, it is hypothesised that:

H4a: Narcissistic leadership personality would influence organisational effectiveness (as measured by organisational performance) negatively

H4b: Narcissistic leadership personality would influence organisational effectiveness (as measured by managerial performance intent) negatively

### 3.2.3.3. Collectivism

According to Schwartz (1990), collectivist societies are grouped societies categorised by diffuse and common obligations and expectations based on qualified statuses. Collectivism can refer to a broader collection of ideals, attitudes, and behaviours than individualism. The following are the traits of a person having a collectivistic predisposition:

- Each individual is encouraged to conform to society.
- Group rights for the common good supersede the importance of the rights of individuals.
- They conform to rules that promote solidity, order, and obedience.
- A requirement is conforming to a group or society.
- Distinctions are made between in-group and out-group people.
- Being cooperative with others within the working environment.
- Refusal to cooperate and wanting to be independent or stand out is seen as shameful.
- Everyone must depend on others for support and teamwork is highly promoted (Collectivism,2010)

For the purpose of this research paper, collectivism is used to illustrate personality types. A collective leader places value on the comfort and mutual support of his/her followers. They are accommodating, and prefer humility in the pursuit of common objectives and goals. A collective leader feels content with contributory group effort and prefers equal recognition rather than solo performance praise. To summarise the sentiments of research, a collective leader's conduct is a combination of personality traits and the collective culture that surrounds the leader.

Much research has made comparisons between collective societies and individualist society, the main issue that became a point of debate being that the managers in collective society use more directive and supportive behaviour than those in an individualistic society (Wendt, Euwema and Van

Emmerk, 2009; Fincher, Thornhill, Murray and Schaller, 2008). An individualist leader would be less supportive to the employees than a collective leader. Supportive leadership behaviour inspires and motivates employees and so positively influences job performances and job satisfactions levels within an organisation. Moreover, Goncalo and Staw (2005) argue that if collectivistic values are pitted against individualism, the former would promote co-operation and productivity while latter invites destructive conflict and opportunism. It is therefore hypothesised that:

H5a: Collectivistic leadership personality would influence organisational effectiveness (as measured by organisational performance) positively

H5b: Collectivistic leadership personality would influence organisational effectiveness (as measured by managerial performance intent) positively

#### **3.2.3.4. Masculinity versus femininity**

The masculinity and femininity theory states that this concerns one's view of oneself in terms of society, not in terms of one's biological state (sex). Society generally sets the boundaries to being masculine or feminine. Traits associated with the former are generally dominant and brave, while with the latter passive and emotional. However in terms of the above theory, it is assumed that there is a choice on perceptions. In some cases, one may find a female choosing to perceive herself as masculine and adopting dominating and brave traits. People have views of themselves along a feminine-masculine dimension of meaning, some being more feminine, some more masculine, and some perhaps a mixture of the two. It is this meaning in the feminine-masculine dimension that is their gender identity, and it is this that guides their behaviour. The understanding is that femininity and masculinity are not innate but are based upon social and cultural conditions. The

differences in temperament between men and women are not a function of their biological differences but result from differences in socialisation and the cultural expectations held for each sex.

Belligerence, toughness, self-assurance, self-directing, getting the job done, cognitive focus, and covetousness are the main attributes of a masculine leadership personality (Eagly, 2007; Gershenoff and Foti, 2008). Higher individual performance is linked to masculinity as has been revealed through many research studies. When comparing feminine and masculine leadership, the former is egalitarian and participative in its nature and the latter domineering and commanding (Eagly and Johnson, 1990).

The research paper implies traits such as forcefulness, materialism and caring interpersonal relationships, do in fact sway how leaders guide employees to achieve organisational objectives. Feminine and masculine behavioural and personality traits would as a result influence the performance of an employee within an organisation.

In his research on the balance of things, Lietaer (2002) debates that organisations require leaders that have both masculine and feminine personality traits, in short also a balance of male and female leaders. The business world often switches what are deemed to be innately female or male leadership characteristics across the gender line, where males are required to be emotive towards relationship building and females are required to be aggressive as leaders. Yet again the research studied implies that both femininity and masculinity would have a positive influence on the performance of an employee within an organisation. It is therefore hypothesised that:

- H6a: Masculine leadership personality would influence organisational effectiveness (as measured by organisational performance) positively
- H6b: Masculine leadership personality would influence organisational effectiveness (as measured by managerial performance intent) positively

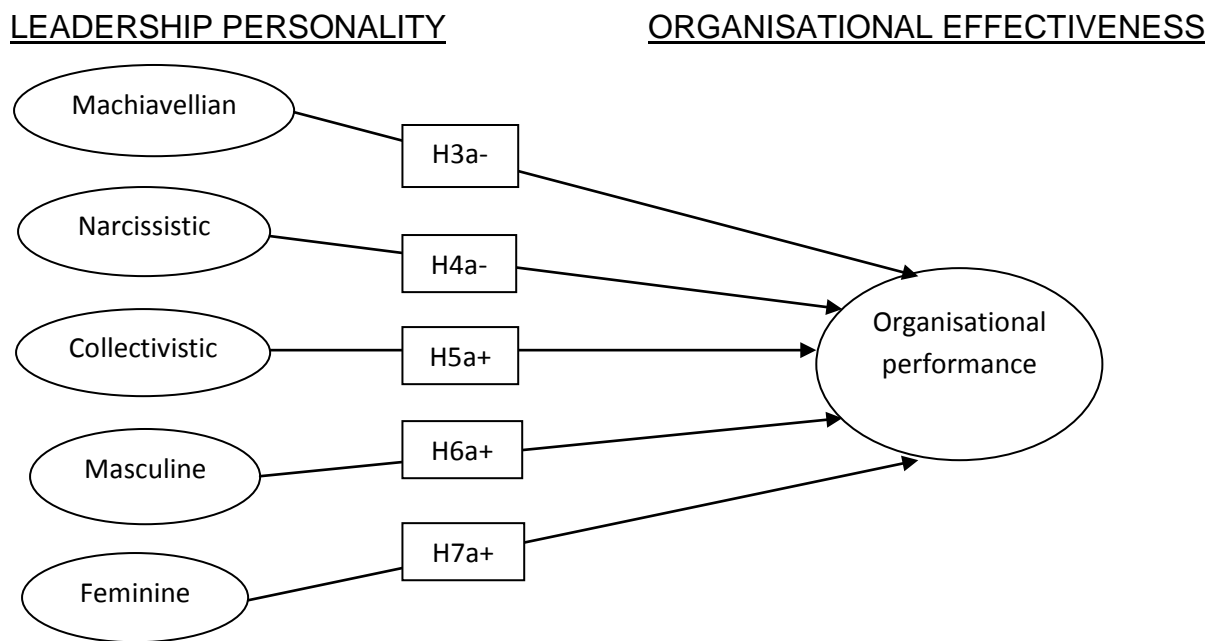


H7a: Feminine leadership personality would influence organisational effectiveness (as measured by organisational performance) positively

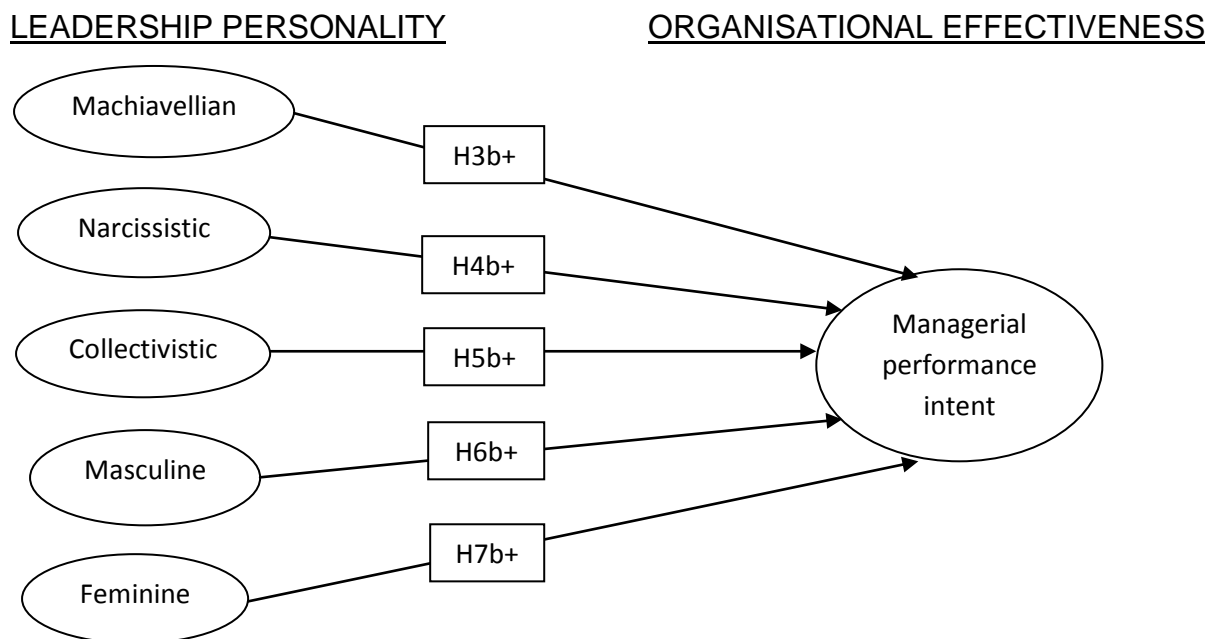
H7b: Feminine leadership personality would influence organisational effectiveness (as measured by managerial performance intent) positively

The above-mentioned hypotheses are graphically depicted in Figures 3.2 and 3.3.

**FIGURE 3.2: HYPOTHESISED MODEL TO IMPROVE ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE - THE INFLUENCE OF LEADERSHIP PERSONALITY**



**FIGURE 3.3: HYPOTHESISED MODEL TO IMPROVE MANAGERIAL PERFORMANCE INTENT- THE INFLUENCE OF LEADERSHIP PERSONALITY**



### 3.3. CONCLUSION

In this chapter, a hypothesized model was developed to investigate the influence of leadership styles and personalities on the perceived organisational performance of SAPS and on the individual performance intent of police officers. In the next chapter the methodology to test the hypothesized model is discussed.

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND EMPIRICAL RESULTS**

#### **4.1. INTRODUCTION**

This chapter provides an overview of the research design of the study. It includes an explanation of the research paradigm, sample, measuring instruments and methodology of the study. The chapter also includes the data analyses conducted in the study. These concern the reliability and validity of the measuring instruments and regression analysis. The empirical results which emanated from these analyses are reported and interpreted.

#### **4.2. RESEARCH PARADIGM**

A research paradigm, according to Thomas Kuhn (1962:175), is “the entire constellation of beliefs, values and techniques and so shared by the members of a given community”, in short an approach to research being carried out, how data is collected in light of the research. According to Leedy (1997), research is a systematic method of gathering and investigating information (data) in order to grow one’s understanding of the phenomenon with which one is concerned or interested. The research paradigm which is often referred to as the methodology of a study is the control of the study, decrees the acquisition of data, organises the data in coherent relationships, sets up a process of filtering the raw data, contrives an appropriate method so that the significances that lie below the surface of those data become manifest, and finally issues a conclusion or series of conclusions that lead to an explanation of the knowledge acquired (Leedy, 1997).

A paradigm is an explanatory basis, which is directed by "a set of beliefs and feelings about the world and how it should be understood and studied" (Guba, 1990). Denzin and Lincoln (2001) listed three groupings of such philosophies:

- Ontology: Ontology deals with the inquiry into what is tangible.
- Epistemology: what is the relationship between the inquirer and the known: "epistemology is the branch of philosophy that studies the nature of knowledge and the process by which knowledge is acquired and validated" (Gall, Borg, and Gall, 1996).
- Methodology: gaining knowledge from our experience, analysis, evaluations and findings.

According to Sarantakos (1993, 31-35), the purpose of research as opposed to the process, can be summarised as follows: to review, and synthesise existing knowledge, to investigate existing situations or problems, to provide solutions to a problem, to explore and analyse more general issues, to construct or create a new procedure or system, to explain a new phenomenon or to generate new knowledge.

Research purpose has three main classifications: explorative, descriptive and casual or predictive. Explorative research is a technique used when no prior research or not much research has been done on a particular subject matter, this technique is used to broaden the perspective, and obtain a better understanding of the subject matter by the researcher. (Collis and Hussey, 2009:334) Descriptive research describes phenomena as they exist and uses statistic and quantitative methods. Casual or predictive seeks to explain what occurs in a particular situation; it aims to generate analysis using hypothesised relationships. For the purpose of this paper all three of the above classification of research methods were used. Quantitative data are numerical in form – in the form of numbers, statistics and polls taken as well as questionnaires. Questionnaires and structured interviews are the usual research methods applied when data need to be compiled and measured in order to formulate an opinion or substantiate results. Some researchers claim that unless human behaviours can be

expressed in numerical terms, they cannot be accurately measured” (Taylor et al, 1995:632).

According to the literature on quantitative methods, the weight of data with regard to the methodology and measuring instruments allows for a more accurate finding, as the analysing and interpreting of findings are more accurate than those of the opposing theory of qualitative research. Findings weigh more once the theory or problem statement is proved through the relationship between variables. For the purpose of this paper, the method of analysis used was quantitative (positivistic) to determine and explain results.

### **4.3. THE SAMPLE**

For the purpose of this paper convenience sampling was used; with convenience sampling the sample size or sample group is sub-divided into groups based on certain criteria, e.g. age, sex, education level and department or division. For the purpose of this paper, the stratification was based on the type of location and rank of officer. The convenience sampling was based on five stations in the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan Municipal area, based on the sector of public service – South African Police Force, the sample was further stratified to the level of leadership or authoritative rank within the police force.

Data gathering was completed manually, a survey was utilised in the questionnaire format; this was conducted at the following police stations within the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan Municipal (NMMM) area: Algoa Park, Gelvandale, Mount Road, Humerail and Kabega Park. The participants were officers of rank in an authoritative position. A total of 100 questionnaires were issued and 90 usable ones were returned.

Table 4.1 shows that 41.1% of the respondents were male and 58.8% of the respondents were female. This seems to reflect a fair gender balance within the SAPS; due to safety and levels of danger within certain communities, most of the

females are office bound in senior administrative and clerical positions, some of which are considered leadership and supervisor positions.

**Table 4.1: DEMOGRAPHIC COMPOSITION OF SAMPLE**

| <b>Gender</b>                      | <b>Number of responses</b> | <b>Percentage of responses</b> |
|------------------------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------------|
| Female                             | 53                         | 58.8                           |
| Male                               | 37                         | 41.1                           |
| <b>Total</b>                       | <b>90</b>                  | <b>100.0</b>                   |
| <b>Home language</b>               | <b>Number of responses</b> | <b>Percentage of responses</b> |
| Afrikaans                          | 50                         | 55.6%                          |
| English                            | 23                         | 25.6%                          |
| Xhosa                              | 17                         | 18.9%                          |
| <b>Total</b>                       | <b>90</b>                  | <b>100.0</b>                   |
| <b>Age group</b>                   | <b>Number of responses</b> | <b>Percentage of responses</b> |
| 20-29                              | 14                         | 15.5%                          |
| 30-39                              | 39                         | 43.3%                          |
| 40-49                              | 31                         | 34.4%                          |
| 50-59                              | 5                          | 5.6%                           |
| 60+                                | 1                          | 1.1%                           |
| <b>Highest Qualification</b>       | <b>Number of responses</b> | <b>Percentage of responses</b> |
| Matriculation                      | 45                         | 50%                            |
| Diploma                            | 20                         | 22.2%                          |
| Degree                             | 6                          | 6.7%                           |
| Honours                            | 1                          | 1.1%                           |
| Other                              | 18                         | 20%                            |
| <b>Position</b>                    | <b>Number of responses</b> | <b>Percentage of responses</b> |
| Junior Level(sgt+ wr off)          | 43                         | 47.8%                          |
| Senior Level(ltn +dep ltn)         | 18                         | 20.0%                          |
| Supervisory Level(captain)         | 11                         | 12.2%                          |
| Middle Management Level(major+dep) | 3                          | 3.3%                           |
| Senior Management Level(colonel)   | 2                          | 2.2%                           |
| Director Level                     | 1                          | 1.1%                           |
| Other                              | 12                         | 13.3%                          |
| <b>Total</b>                       | <b>90</b>                  | <b>100.0</b>                   |

Table 4.1 indicates 14 were aged between twenty to twenty-nine years old, 39 were in the thirty to thirty-nine years old bracket, 31 were between forty and forty-nine years of age, five were in their fifties and one was in the sixty plus category. This translates to 15.5%, 43.3%, 34.4%, 5.6% and 1.1%, respectively. The age group profile, coupled with the rest of the demographic composition in Table 4.1 highlights the maturity of the respondents as well as diversity within their organisations.

Table 4.1 indicates that the majority of the respondents have obtained Matriculation and diploma qualifications. The response rate from individuals who did not study beyond matriculation was 50% and 22.2% reported that they obtained national certificates as their highest qualification. The response rate from degree graduates of 6.7% was from those with various first degree qualifications in fields such as commerce, human resources and communications. Only 1.1% had futhered their respective degrees to honours level. 2.2% of the respondents held senior level positions in the organisations that they work for, while 3.3% were in middle management, 2.2% in senior management, 12.2% in supervisory positions, 13.3% were junior employees and directors represented only 1.1% of the respondents.

#### **4.4. THE MEASURING INSTRUMENTS**

The perceived transactional and transformational leadership style variables were measured using the instruments developed by Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Noorman and Fetter (1990). The transactional leadership instrument comprised four items, while the transformational leadership consisted of fourteen items. The Christie and Geis (1970) instrument was used to measure perceived Machiavellianism. The instrument comprised eight items.

Items from the Bem Sex Role Inventory (Bem, 1977) were used to measure perceived femininity and masculinity leadership personality variables. The femininity instruments consisted of eight items, while the masculinity instrument consisted of seven items.

Perceived collectivistic leadership personality was measured using the instrument developed by Matsumoto, Weissman, Preston, Brown and Kupperbausch (1997). Twelve of the original 25 items were selected for this purpose.

The NEO-PI-R instrument was used to measure perceived narcissistic leadership personality. This instrument, consisting of eight items, produced acceptable reliability coefficients (ranging from 0.87 to 0.92) according to Sharpe and Desai (2001).

In the present study, organisational effectiveness is viewed as the collective perceptions of managers of their own job performance intentions and performance of their organisations. Perceived performance intent was measured with the instrument developed by Boshoff and Arnolds (1995), which produced a reliability coefficient of 0.74 in that study. Perceived organisational performance of the state institution was measured by an adapted version of the sales success instrument developed by Arnolds, Tait and Dayan (2006). The measurement items were changed from a sales success focus to an organisational performance focus. This instrument produced a reliability coefficient of 0.85 for sales success in the Arnolds et al. (1995) study.

The items of all the above-mentioned instruments were anchored to a five-point scale, which ranged from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. These were therefore all closed questionnaire statements.

#### **4.5. DATA ANALYSIS**

The STATISTICA Version 10 (2010) computer software programme was used to analyse the data. These analyses included the following:

- Assessing the reliability of the measuring instruments and therefore the data
- Assessing the validity of the measuring instruments and therefore the data
- Conducting a multiple regression analysis to test the hypothesised relationships among the variables under investigation.



### **4.5.1. Reliability**

Reliability is considered a key concept, as it impacts the quality of data measured by the measuring instrument. Reliability is referred to as the extent to which the results are free of measurement error. Measurement error is the existence of some error caused during measurement (Muijs, 2011). Reliability according to Craig (2009) relates to the consistency of the results produced by the instruments used in the study.

According to Light, Singer and Willet (1999:165), "If an instrument yields identical duplicated measurements then the rank-order of the people measure will be consistent and we say that the measurement is reliable". Leedy(1997) states that reliability is the consistency with which a measuring instrument performs. Holm and Llewellyn (1986) further define reliability of measuring instruments as referring to how well the instrument consistently yields similar results. Joppe (2000:1) defines reliability as the extent to which results are consistent over time and an accurate representation of the total population under study is referred to as reliability and if the results of a study can be reproduced with a similar methodology, then the research instrument is considered to be reliable.

Reliability of a measuring instrument refers to the extent to which that instrument yields the same or similar sets of responses; such an instrument will be deemed reliable. There are several forms of reliability, all of which will have an influence on the general reliability of the instrument and consequently the data collected. Reliability is a vital pre-requisite for validity

The following techniques may be used to increase reliability:

- Ensure conditions, and respondents are the same when administering the evaluations (Muijis, 2011);

- Limit the variation of respondents by simplifying the items/questions on the evaluation (validity to the study items must be relevant) (Muijjs, 2011);
- Make sure evaluations are given within a controlled environment;
- Avoid ambiguity within the evaluation “misinterpretations of wording of the instrument” (Light, Singer and Willet, 1990);
- Too much time should not elapse between administration of first and second evaluations, administer the evaluation systematically (Light, Singer and Willet, 1990). One or two weeks is often recommended as optimal time (Muijjs, 2011);
- Design of the instrument has impact on the measurement error, as a well-designed instrument minimises measurement error (measurement error is the variations in response, or inconsistent responses, the greater the inconsistent responses the greater the measurement error);
- To improve measurement quality is to simply include more items in the measuring instrument and lengthen item scales;
- Use multiple raters or scorers as this diminishes the measurement error due to the interpretation of results by different experts within the field; it is especially useful when the evaluation is subjective (Light, Singer and Willet, 1990).

There are two main forms of reliability:

- (i) Repeated measurements discussed further are a measurement technique used to measure the identical things at different times.
- Test-retest, this technique is used on the same set of respondent using the same test at different intervals, in order to obtain the same result, Should the same result be obtained the measuring instrument would be considered reliable. Time is a constraint that affects the reliability of the test. The estimation of how much or little time should pass also determines whether the results would be effective (termed the carry

over effect). The test-retest evaluates the strengths of the score correlating between the first evaluation and the second evaluation.

- Inter-rater reliability uses a technique of different observers using the same measuring instrument and correlating the responses of the different observers. The reliability is based on the findings amongst the sets or groupings of results.
  - (ii) Internal consistency reliability is only applicable to instruments that have more than one item and how well they measure a single construct (Muijs, 2001:63).
- Split halves are created by dissecting the measuring instruments in two equal parts, the results are then collected and the scores of each part are calculated and correlated to measure reliability. This method is more practical in that it does not require two administrations of the same or an alternative form test.
- The Cronbach alpha reflects the statistical process of the split halves technique which was computed using the STATISTICA, 2010 software program. The Cronbach alpha involves the investigation of the stability of performance among the items of the instruments. The reliability Cronbach alpha coefficient normally ranges between 0 and 1. While increasing the value of alpha is partially dependent upon the number of items in the scale, the scale however has diminishing returns. The closer Cronbach's alpha coefficient is to 1.0 the greater the internal consistency of the items in the scale. According to Zikmund, Babin, Carr and Griffin (2010), a Cronbach alpha of 0.60 is regarded as a fair level of reliability, while above 0.70 is regarded as good reliability.

In the research study, the Cronbach coefficient alpha was calculated to assess the reliability of the measuring instruments. Table 4.2, column 2, shows that four leadership personality variables did not attain a Cronbach

alpha of 0.60: Collectivism (0.51), Masculinity (0.49), Machiavellianism (0.25) and Narcissism (0.58). Items with low item-to-total correlations were deleted to improve the Cronbach alpha of these instruments. These items are reported in Column 3 of Table 4.5.1.

As a result of this process of deletion, the Cronbach alphas of the Collectivism, Masculinity and Narcissism variables were improved to 0.65, 0.62 and 0.60 respectively. The instrument for the Machiavellianism variable was omitted from all subsequent analyses, as its reliability was found too poor for further analysis. Column 4 of Table 4.5.1 shows that all the remaining instruments show fair reliability of 0.60 and more.

**TABLE 4.2: CRONBACH ALPHA VALUES OF MEASURING INSTRUMENTS**

| <b>COLUMN 1</b>                       | <b>COLUMN 2</b>             | <b>COLUMN 3</b>                | <b>COLUMN 4</b>           |
|---------------------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------------------|---------------------------|
| <b>MEASURING INSTRUMENT</b>           | <b>INITIAL ALPHA VALUES</b> | <b>MEASURING ITEMS DELETED</b> | <b>FINAL ALPHA VALUES</b> |
| Organisational performance            | 0.90                        | None                           | 0.90                      |
| Individual performance intent         | 0.78                        | None                           | 0.78                      |
| Transactional leadership              | 0.60                        | None                           | 0.60                      |
| Transformational leadership           | 0.76                        | None                           | 0.76                      |
| Collectivistic leadership personality | 0.51                        | COLEC 4 and 5                  | 0.65                      |
| Feminine leadership personality       | 0.74                        | None                           | 0.74                      |
| Masculine leadership personality      | 0.49                        | MASCU 3 and 4                  | 0.62                      |
| Machiavellian leadership personality  | 0.25                        | Deleted                        | Deleted                   |
| Narcissistic leadership personality   | 0.58                        | NARC 7                         | 0.60                      |

#### **4.5.2. Validity of the measuring instruments**

There are two words that are repeatedly encountered in research, namely reliability and validity. Patton (2002) states that reliability and validity are two factors which any researcher should be concerned about while designing a study, analysing results and judging the quality of the study. The latter will now be defined and discussed. According to Leedy (1997), validity is concerned with the soundness or the effectiveness of the measuring instrument. Validity questions whether the research measured what it was expected to. Validity decides whether the means of measurement is precise and whether it is truly measuring what it is intended to measure. According to Craig (2003), it is the notion that the measuring instrument (test, survey, interview etc.) actually does measure what it is supposed to: "What it says it will measure." Validity is the extent to which the interpretations of the results of a test are warranted, which depends on the particular use the test is intended to serve (Kimberlin and Winterstein, 2008). Validity therefore measures the intent and aim of the study. Faultless validity requires that there be no measurement error.

According to Leedy (1997), there are six types of validity:

- Face validity is a subjective type of validity as it relies heavily on the subjective judgement of the researcher.
- Criterion validity checks how significant the research criteria are in relation to other probable criteria. When the criterion is assessed later the goal is to establish predictive validity. Leedy (1997) states criterion validity is determined by relating performance on one measure to the performance on another measure called a criterion.
- Content validation depends on the extent to which an empirical measurement reflects a specific domain of content. The researcher must be able to specify the full domain of content that is relevant to the

particular measurement situation (Carmines and Zeller, 1979). Items of a test are drawn from the domain being measured.

- Internal validity is the independence from bias in establishing a conclusion in assessing the data. It seeks to ascertain that the variations in the dependent variable are the latent effect of the influence of the independent variable, rather than of the manner in which the research is designed.
- External validity is concerned with the generalizability of the conclusions reached through observation of a sample to the universe.
- Construct validity is the degree to which the construct itself is actually measured. A multitrait-multimethod matrix was developed which uses the traits of convergence and discriminability validity. Leedy (1997) states convergence looks to the focal effect of various methods of measuring a construct, while discriminate validity means that the measuring instrument should be able to discriminate, differentiate the construct being studied from other similar constructs.

For the purpose of this study the discriminant validity was utilised to test the validity of the measuring tool. Campbell and Fiske (1959) introduced the theory of discriminant validity in their analysis on evaluating test validity. They emphasised the significance of using both discriminant and convergent validation methods when considering new tests. An effective evaluation of discriminant validity indicates that a test of a concept is not highly correlated with other tests aimed to quantify theoretically different concepts.

A factor analysis divides variables into groups of independent and dependent variables, where the independent are the predictors and the dependent the groups. If a factor analysis is misinterpreted, and discriminant validity is not established, then measurement scales used in research may not function

correctly, and conclusions made regarding relationships between constructs under investigation may be incorrect.

In the current study, two sets of factor analyses were conducted. The first set involved the independent variables, while the second set involved the dependent variables. In all cases Varimax rotation of the original factor matrix was used and Principal Component Analysis was specified as the method of factor extraction.

**TABLE 4.3: ROTATED FACTOR LOADING – INDEPENDENT VARIABLES**

|                | Factor 1                              | Factor 2                | Factor 3            | Factor 4                         | Factor 5                        | Factor 6                          |
|----------------|---------------------------------------|-------------------------|---------------------|----------------------------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
|                | Collectivistic leadership personality | Constructive Narcissism | Reactive Narcissism | Masculine leadership personality | Feminine leadership personality | Transformational leadership style |
| ACTION1        | 0.232987                              | -0.038466               | -0.277681           | <b>0.670785</b>                  | 0.102349                        | 0.168114                          |
| ACTION2        | <b>0.692883</b>                       | 0.141371                | 0.089915            | -0.087486                        | -0.076923                       | 0.197502                          |
| COLEC3         | <b>0.724390</b>                       | 0.028209                | 0.037907            | 0.141555                         | 0.125776                        | 0.093082                          |
| COLEC6         | <b>0.678748</b>                       | 0.166284                | 0.245561            | 0.265093                         | -0.012999                       | -0.249847                         |
| COLEC7         | <b>0.737332</b>                       | -0.050632               | -0.026616           | 0.053512                         | 0.255954                        | 0.151767                          |
| FEMIN3         | <b>0.685277</b>                       | -0.051343               | 0.075853            | 0.002142                         | 0.257486                        | 0.210164                          |
| FEMIN4         | 0.285646                              | -0.127939               | 0.014298            | -0.064343                        | <b>0.828207</b>                 | 0.031356                          |
| FEMIN5         | <b>0.625101</b>                       | -0.274575               | 0.180573            | 0.131619                         | 0.230997                        | -0.045880                         |
| FORM2          | 0.054365                              | -0.041881               | 0.011021            | 0.087833                         | 0.119049                        | <b>0.858136</b>                   |
| FORM6          | 0.167189                              | <b>0.738150</b>         | -0.327579           | -0.021679                        | -0.119115                       | 0.154241                          |
| FORM7          | <b>0.749288</b>                       | 0.222652                | -0.086827           | 0.224502                         | 0.213436                        | 0.121902                          |
| FORM8          | <b>0.562863</b>                       | 0.233580                | -0.007921           | -0.223697                        | 0.108115                        | 0.328871                          |
| FORM9          | 0.225517                              | 0.278388                | -0.036064           | 0.258478                         | -0.179935                       | <b>0.699199</b>                   |
| MASCU2         | 0.089512                              | 0.002928                | 0.209112            | <b>0.869355</b>                  | 0.059588                        | 0.124877                          |
| NARC1          | -0.053252                             | -0.048609               | <b>0.779525</b>     | 0.294639                         | 0.344782                        | -0.045220                         |
| NARC2          | <b>0.673399</b>                       | 0.092081                | 0.024409            | 0.111519                         | 0.059338                        | 0.017536                          |
| NARC3          | 0.235896                              | 0.160899                | <b>0.809532</b>     | -0.115306                        | -0.162113                       | 0.039581                          |
| NARC4          | 0.125861                              | 0.041950                | 0.083133            | 0.183538                         | <b>0.842050</b>                 | 0.004579                          |
| NARC6          | -0.234067                             | <b>0.780025</b>         | 0.287825            | -0.013357                        | 0.204142                        | 0.044363                          |
| NARC8          | 0.333911                              | <b>0.759274</b>         | 0.131301            | 0.020095                         | -0.233165                       | -0.039264                         |
| Eigen value    | 4.667517                              | 2.098560                | 1.716852            | 1.650278                         | 1.978775                        | 1.603774                          |
| Cronbach alpha | 0.87                                  | 0.67                    | 0.58                | 0.61                             | 0.005                           | 0.62                              |

Note: Loadings greater than 0.40 were considered significant.

In the first factor analysis, the extraction of seven factors, namely transformational leadership, collectivism, femininity, masculinity, Machiavellianism and narcissism, was specified. After taking into



consideration a variety of factor solutions, it had to be concluded that the instruments utilised to assess the masculinity and Machiavellianism did not reveal adequate proof of discriminant validity. It was concluded that each one of the seven variables modelled was an individual and unique construct but that their distinctiveness needed to be empirically confirmed. Five, instead of seven, noticeably distinct leadership style and personality variables could be acknowledged. The most interpretable factor structures for these leadership variables are reported in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 shows that one transactional leadership item (ACTION2), three collectivism items (COLEC3, 6 and 7), two feminine items (FEMIN 3 and 5), two transformational leadership items (FORM7 and 8) and one narcissism item (NARC2) loaded on factor 1. It appears that all these items describe a collectivistic leadership personality and are therefore regarded as measures of that leadership personality.

The factor analysis further reveals that one transformational leadership item (FORM6) and two Narcissism items (NARC6 and 8) loaded on factor 2. It is clear that these items reflect a constructive narcissistic leadership personality (Kets de Vries and Miller, 1985) and are therefore labelled as such.

Factor 3 consists of two Narcissism items (NARC1 and 3). The factor is labelled reactive narcissism (Kets de Vries and Miller, 1985), as the items describe that type of leadership personality.

Factor 4 comprises one transactional leadership style item (ACTION1) and one masculine personality item (MASCU2). The items collectively reflect a masculine leadership personality and are therefore labelled as such.

In factor 5, the loadings include one feminine leadership personality item (FEMIN4) and one narcissistic leadership personality item (NARC4). The items reflect the characteristics of a feminine leadership personality and are therefore regarded as measures of that personality.

**TABLE 4.4: ROTATED FACTOR LOADING – DEPENDENT VARIABLES**

|                | <b>Factor 1</b>                   | <b>Factor 2</b>           |
|----------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|
|                | <b>Organisational performance</b> | <b>Performance intent</b> |
| ORGP1          | <b>0.654076</b>                   | 0.129799                  |
| ORGP10         | <b>0.540577</b>                   | 0.211407                  |
| ORGP2          | <b>0.791306</b>                   | 0.286856                  |
| ORGP3          | <b>0.720779</b>                   | 0.122714                  |
| ORGP4          | <b>0.670905</b>                   | 0.283623                  |
| ORGP5          | <b>0.636699</b>                   | 0.274132                  |
| ORGP6          | <b>0.682201</b>                   | 0.198577                  |
| ORGP7          | <b>0.784126</b>                   | 0.096777                  |
| ORGP8          | <b>0.795049</b>                   | 0.105023                  |
| ORGP9          | <b>0.811742</b>                   | -0.003557                 |
| PERF1          | -0.026882                         | <b>0.789365</b>           |
| PERF2          | 0.249864                          | <b>0.786388</b>           |
| PERF3          | 0.222563                          | <b>0.793027</b>           |
| PERF4          | 0.097124                          | <b>0.681822</b>           |
| Eigen value    | 5.214628                          | 2.709595                  |
| Cronbach alpha | 0.90                              | 0.78                      |

Note: Loadings greater than 0.40 were considered significant.

Factor 6 consists of two transformational leadership style items (FORM2 and 9). These items clearly reflect the characteristics of a transformational leadership style and are therefore labelled as such.

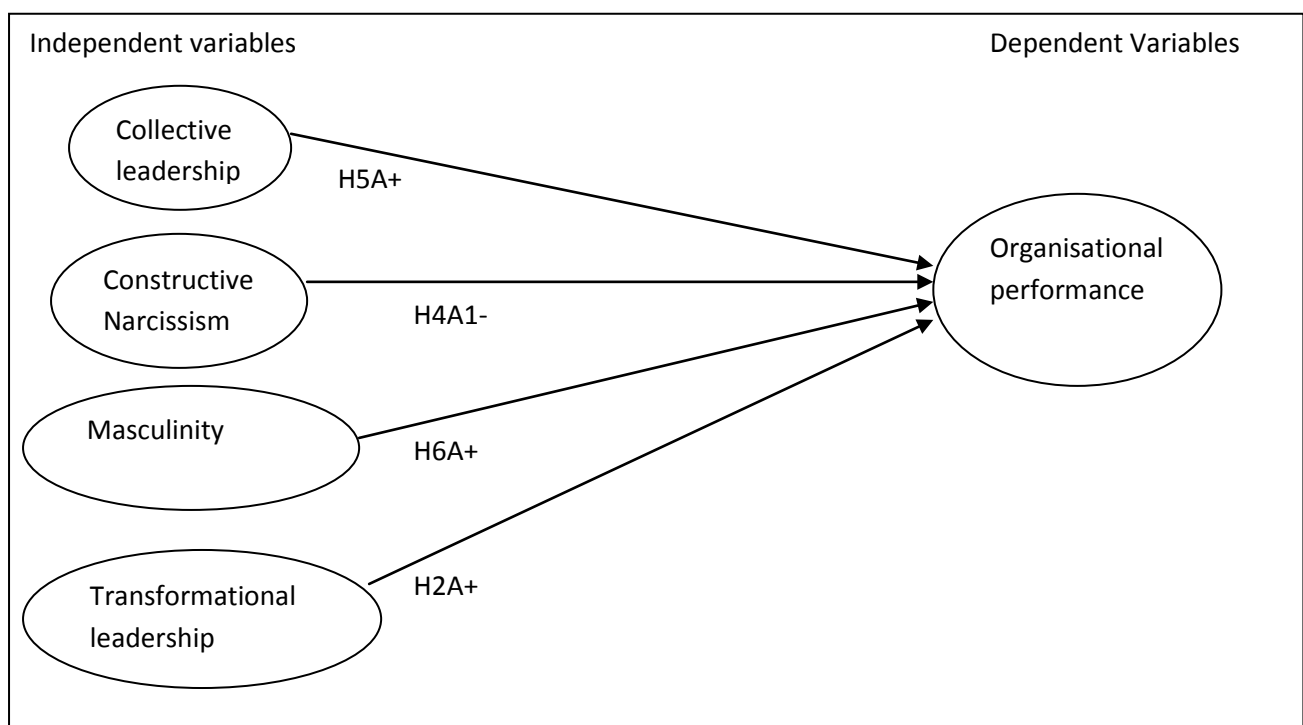
The second factor analysis involved the assessment of the discriminant validity of the dependent variables, organisational performance and individual performance intent. The extraction of two factors was specified. The empirical evidence supported this contention. It could therefore be concluded that the instruments used to measure organisational performance and individual

performance intent demonstrated sufficient evidence of discriminant validity. The factor structures for these variables are shown in Table 4.4.

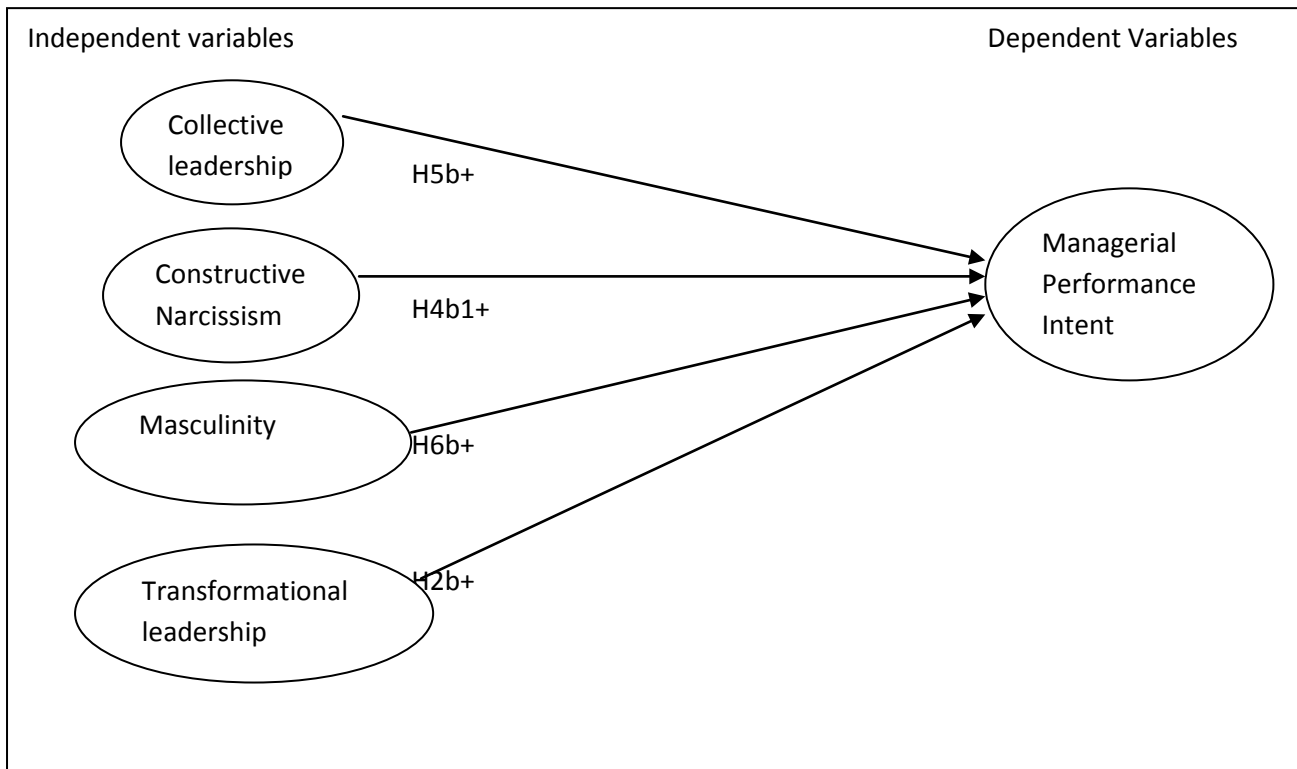
The factor analysis shows all ten organisational performance items loaded on factor 1. This factor is therefore labelled accordingly. All four performance intent items loaded on factor 2. This factor is therefore labelled performance intent.

The Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients of constructs as they emerged from the factor analyses were re-calculated to confirm their internal consistency. Table 4.4 shows that the instruments for collectivistic (0.87), constructive narcissistic (0.67) and masculine (0.61) leadership personalities exhibit fair to very good reliability, while the instruments for reactive narcissistic (0.58) and feminine leadership (0.005) personalities exhibit poor to very poor reliability. The latter two latent variables were therefore omitted from all subsequent analyses. The instruments that measures transformational leadership style (0.62) exhibited fair reliability. All the leadership personality variables, except reactive narcissism and femininity, were therefore retained for all subsequent analyses.

**FIGURE 4.1: THE REVISED MODEL TO IMPROVE ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE**



**FIGURE 4.2: THE REVISED MODEL TO IMPROVE MANAGERIAL PERFORMANCE INTENT**



Due to the development of a new variable from the exploratory factor analysis, namely performance intent, two new hypotheses had to be formulated.

H4a1: constructive narcissism has a positive influence on organisational performance

H4b1: constructive narcissism has a negative influence on managerial performance intent

The revised hypothesised model is graphically depicted in Figures 4.1 and 4.2. respectively. The original hypotheses had to be reformulated due to the explorative factor analysis.

### 4.5.3. Multiple regression analysis

The STATISTICA Version 10.0 (2010) computer software programme was utilized to explore the relationships between organisational performance (the dependent variable) and its determinants (the independent variables). These relationships include the influence of collectivism, narcissism, transformational leadership and, performance intent; its effect on organisational performance and personal performance.

The results of the multiple regression analysis are summarised in Tables 4.5 and 4.6 below. The empirical results indicate that the four determinants investigated in this study explain about 49.5 percent ( $r^2 = .4959$ ) of the variance in organisational effectiveness (OE) and 63 percent ( $r_2 = .6338$ ) of the variance in performance intent (PI). This means that, although they are not all significant determinants of OE and PP in this study, all these determinants play a role in achieving OE with collectivism, performance intent, narcissism and transformational leadership playing the most important (significant) roles.

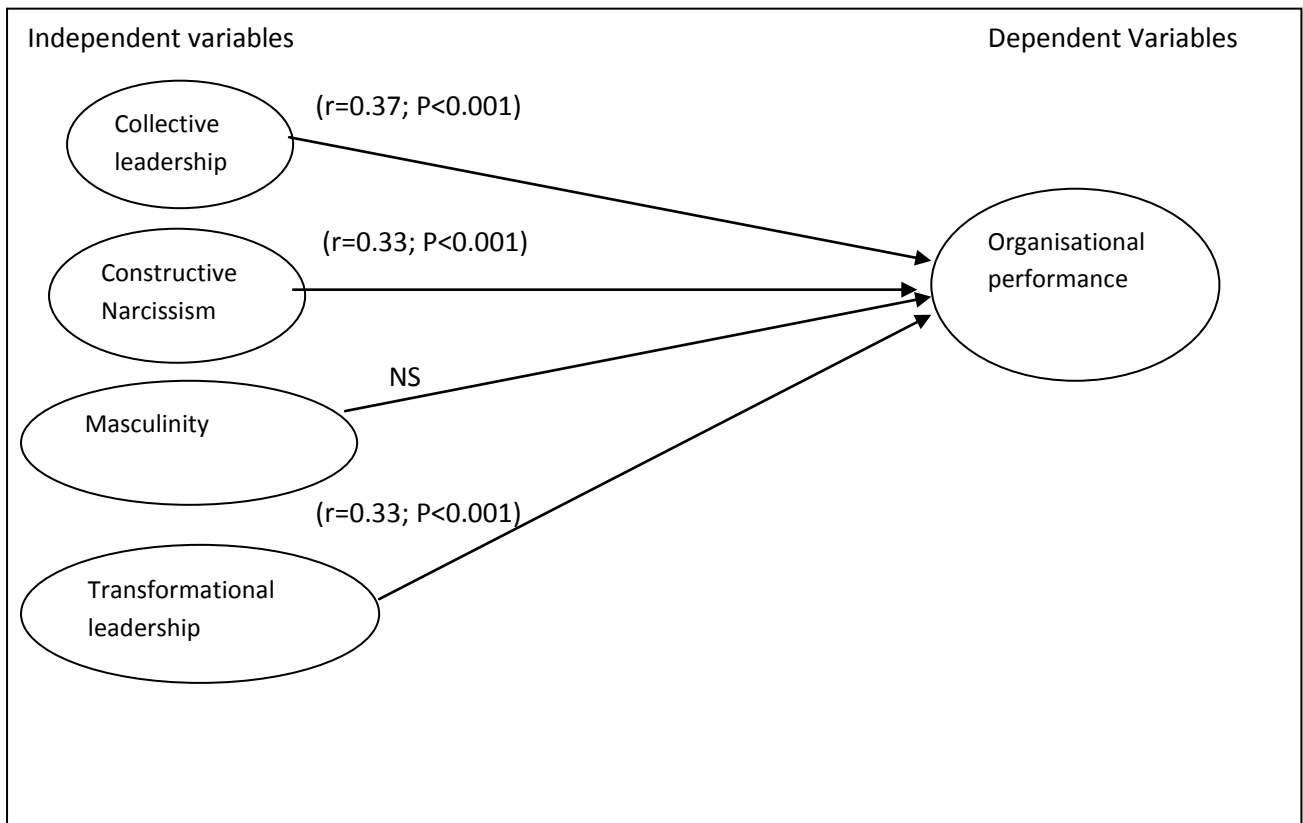
**TABLE 4.5: REGRESSION ANALYSIS - ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE**

Regression Summary for Dependent Variable:  
 OOPERF (Chetty data3) R= .70423272 R<sup>2</sup>= .49594372 Adjusted R<sup>2</sup>= .47222342 F(4,85)=20.908 p=0.814982

|                  | b*        | Std.Err. - of b* | B         | Std.Err. - of b | t(85)    | p-value  |
|------------------|-----------|------------------|-----------|-----------------|----------|----------|
| <b>Intercept</b> |           |                  | -0.116118 | 0.494683        | -0.23473 | 0.814982 |
| <b>CLEAD</b>     | 0.370670  | 0.083695         | 0.505075  | 0.114043        | 4.42881  | 0.000028 |
| <b>NNARC</b>     | 0.330942  | 0.080394         | 0.271724  | 0.066009        | 4.11647  | 0.000089 |
| <b>MASCU</b>     | -0.103347 | 0.083096         | -0.101291 | 0.081442        | -1.24371 | 0.217025 |
| <b>TLEAD</b>     | 0.331503  | 0.084675         | 0.296911  | 0.075840        | 3.91498  | 0.000182 |

\*All relationships significant at p<0.05

**FIGURE 4.3: THE REVISED MODEL TO IMPROVE ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE**



\*NS=non-significant

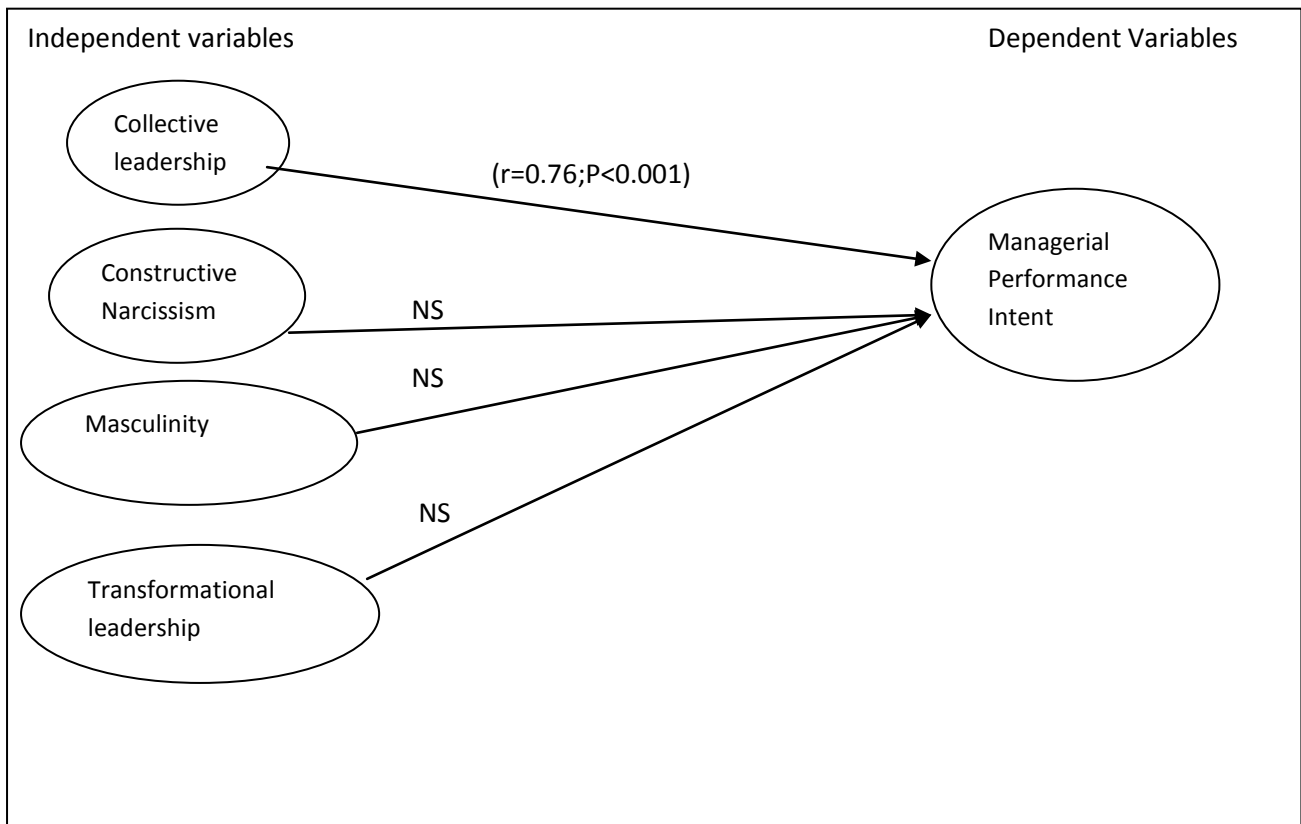
**TABLE 4.6: REGRESSION ANALYSIS - MANAGERIAL PERFORMANCE INTENT**

Regression Summary for Dependent Variable:  
 PPERF (Chetty data3) R= .79617012 R<sup>2</sup>= .63388685 Adjusted R<sup>2</sup>= .61665800 F(4,85)=36.792 p=0.105780

|           | b*        | Std.Err. - of b* | B         | Std.Err. - of b | t(85)    | p-value  |
|-----------|-----------|------------------|-----------|-----------------|----------|----------|
| Intercept |           |                  | 0.539160  | 0.329793        | 1.63484  | 0.105780 |
| CLEAD     | 0.764024  | 0.071329         | 0.814369  | 0.076030        | 10.71120 | 0.000000 |
| NNARC     | -0.001284 | 0.068516         | -0.000825 | 0.044007        | -0.01874 | 0.985094 |
| MASCU     | 0.090771  | 0.070819         | 0.069593  | 0.054296        | 1.28173  | 0.203421 |
| TLEAD     | 0.002572  | 0.072165         | 0.001802  | 0.050561        | 0.03564  | 0.971651 |

\*All relationships significant at p<0.05

**FIGURE 4.4: THE REVISED MODEL TO IMPROVE MANAGERIAL PERFORMANCE INTENT**



\*NS=non-significant

Tables 4.5 and 4.6 indicate the results emanating from the regression analysis of the influence of collective, constructive narcissism, performance intent and transformational, the independent variables, on project implementation, the dependent variable. These results are now discussed with the reformulated hypothesis.

#### **4.5.3.1. Collective leadership personality and organisational performance**

Hypothesis H5a stipulated that collective leadership exerts a positive influence on organisational performance. The null hypothesis formulated regarding collective leadership was:

H5a Collective leadership exerts no influence on organisational performance.

The empirical results show that collective leadership exerts a significant positive influence on organisational performance ( $r=0.37$ ,  $p<0.001$ ). The empirical results therefore indicate that leaders with a collective leadership personality have a positive influence on organisational performance. The null hypothesis H05A was therefore not supported while the alternative hypothesis H5a was supported. The empirical results suggest the more collective leadership is applied in the pursuit of organisational performance the more the latter is achieved.

#### **4.5.3.2. Constructive narcissism personality and organisational performance**

Hypothesis H4a1 stipulated that constructive narcissism personality exerts a positive influence on organisational performance. The null hypothesis regarding this variable was:

H04a1 Constructive narcissism has no influence on organisational performance

As shown in Table 4.5 the empirical results show that constructive narcissism personality traits exert a significant positive influence on organisational performance ( $r=0.33$ ,  $p<0.001$ ). This indicates that leaders who display constructive narcissism personality traits do positively influence organisational performance. Therefore the null hypothesis(H04a1), that indicates constructive narcissism personality has no influence on organisational performance was not supported. The alternative hypothesis (H4a1), that constructive narcissism exerts a negative influence on organisational performance was also not supported. The empirical results therefore indicate that police officials who exhibit constructive narcissistic personality traits would influence the organisational performance of their precincts positively.



#### **4.5.3.3. Masculine personality and organisational performance**

Hypothesis H6a claimed that Masculine personality exerts a positive influence on organisational performance. The null hypothesis formulated regarding performance intents was:

H06a Masculinity exerts no influence on organisational performance.

The empirical results indicate that the Masculine personality traits have no influence on organisational performance. The empirical results were therefore in support of the null hypothesis (H06a) and not in support of the alternative hypothesis (H6a).

#### **4.5.3.4. Transformational leadership style and organisational performance**

Hypothesis H2a stipulated that Transformational leadership exerts a positive influence on organisational performance. The null hypothesis regarding this variable was:

H02a Transformational leadership has no influence on organisational performance

The empirical results indicate in Table 4.5 that the transformational leadership style influences organisational performance positively ( $r=0.33$ ,  $p<0.05$ ). These results indicate that police officials who exhibit transformational leadership style significantly influence the organisational performance of their precincts in a positive manner. The null hypothesis (H02a) was therefore not supported by the empirical evidence, while the alternative hypothesis (H2a) was supported.

#### **4.5.3.5. Collective leadership personality and managerial performance intent**

Hypothesis H5b stipulated that collective leadership exerts a positive influence on individual performance. The null hypothesis formulated regarding collective leadership was:

H05b Collective leadership exerts no influence on managerial performance intent

The empirical evidence indicated that collective leadership personality was significantly positively related to managerial performance intent ( $r=0.76$ ,  $p<0.05$ ). The alternative hypothesis (H5a) was therefore supported, while the null hypothesis(H05b) was not supported. This means that police officials with collective leadership personalities will also exhibit a positive managerial performance intent

#### **4.5.3.6. Constructive narcissism and managerial performance intent**

Hypothesis H4b1 contended that Constructive narcissism has a negative influence on individual performance. The null hypothesis formulated in this regard was:

H04b1 Constructive narcissism has no influence on managerial performance intent

The data analysis in Table 4.6 indicates that there is no significant relationship between managerial performance intent and constructive narcissism. Therefore the alternative hypothesis (H4b1) was not supported in this instance, while the null hypothesis(H04b1) was supported. This means that the performance intent of police officials is not by the fact that some of them exhibit a constructive narcissistic leadership personality.

#### **4.5.3.7. Masculine personality and managerial performance intent**

Hypothesis H6b suggests that Masculinity has a positive influence on managerial performance intent. The null hypothesis formulated in this regard was:

H06b Masculinity has no influence on managerial performance intent

The empirical results in Table 4.6 indicates that there is no significant relation between masculinity and managerial performance intent .In other words,the alternative hypothesis (H6b) was not supported, while the null hypothesis(H06b) was supported.This means that masculine personality qualities do not influence the performance intent of the police officials investigated in this sample.

#### **4.5.3.8. Transformational leadership style and managerial performance intent**

Hypothesis H2b declares that Transformational leadership has a positive influence on managerial performance intent. The null hypothesis formulated in this regard was:

H01b Transformational leadership has no influence on managerial performance intent

The data analysis in Table 4.6 indicates that there is no significant relation between transformational leadership style and managerial performance intent. The alternative hypothesis (H2b) was therefore not supported, while the null hypothesis (H02b) was supported.This means that an inclination towards being transformational does not influence the performance intent of the police officials investigated in this study. The empirical evidence seems to suggest that by being transformational does not impact their individual performance

intention. The training and development of police officials should therefore focus more intensively on this apparent weakness.

#### **4.6. CONCLUSION**

Chapter Four briefly elaborates on the research methodology that was utilised to conduct the research study. The empirical results were reported and interpreted. The empirical results revealed that constructive narcissistic and collectivistic leadership personality traits, as well as transformational leadership style exert a positive influence on the organisational performance of the Nelson Mandela Bay police precincts. The empirical results also showed that collectivistic leadership personality traits influence the performance intent of these police officials positively. In Chapter 5, these results are discussed in terms of the implications they hold for the managers of police precincts.

## CHAPTER 5

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter summarises the entire study. The empirical results, the interpretations and conclusions drawn will be discussed in this chapter on the basis of the findings produced as a result of the study. Recommendations are put forward to improve and enhance organisational effectiveness and managerial performance intent in the police service with regard to leadership recruitment and development. The aim of the study was to improve the organisational effectiveness in the SAPS by investigating which leadership personality traits and styles influence the organisational performance of the institution and the performance intent of the police officers in the SAPS. Organisational performance and managerial performance intent combined constitute organisational effectiveness in the present study.

#### 5.2 THE MAIN DETERMINANTS OF ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

The empirical results show that a collective leadership personality is the main determinant of organisational performance. The empirical results show that constructive narcissism, and transformational leadership exert a positive influence on organisational performance. These results are now discussed individually.

##### 5.2.1. Collective leadership personality

The empirical results indicate that collective leadership increases both organisational performance ( $r=0.37, p < 0.001$ ) and managerial performance intent ( $r=0.74, p < 0.001$ ).

*In “Collective activity is an important aspect of human work for managing system complexity and for maintaining system reliability” (Driskell and Salas, 1992; Duarte and Vidal, 1992; Guillevic and de Terssac, 1990; Leplat, 1991; Schmidt, 1991).*

Collective leadership supports the theory of team work; in a policing public entity an essential element of a work force is cooperation, sharing goals, social awareness, community service and crime fighting. Annexue B items indicate that for collective leadership to affect organisational effectiveness, a leader has to give special recognition, be loyal, conduct him or herself in an acceptable manner (etiquette), be cooperative and accommodating, mention achievements, and motivate subordinates. The above mentioned are aspects respondents agreed would essentially improve organisational effectiveness. Each item will be elaborated on further with regard to their effect on organisational effectiveness.

As formerly mentioned, special recognition potentially affects organisational effectiveness in a positive manner. The relationship between special recognition and performance seems to be more prevalent than once assumed. Recognition skills produce positive results. The strength of the benefit may vary, but effectively it assists with the organisation's effectiveness. The goal of the current research substantiates the potentially differential benefits of special recognition as far as collective leadership is concerned. “If the employee can expect gratification of some of his important emotional needs through participation in the organization, he can to a degree become morally involved in the organization; for its part, the organization can then expect a greater degree of loyalty, commitment, and identification with organizational goals” (Schein, 1965:60).

Collective leadership personality also includes loyalty, etiquette and cooperation. Cooperative relationships can increase employee commitment to the organization and stimulate new ways of raising service delivery, thereby enhancing loyalty (Hallowell, 1996). Maintaining proper etiquette is a precondition for involvement in the maintenance of cooperation, harmony and

consensus. Cooperative environment amongst employees and collective leaders may lead to lower absenteeism and employee turnover (Harrison and Martocchio,1998). The potential advantages to employees could take the form of enhanced financial benefits, time off and a higher quality of work life (Cooke 1990; Kelley and Harrison 1992). Ott (1989:87) defines a public service ethic that includes a belief that public servants will have a distinctive sense of loyalty and a special sensitivity to the public interest.

Collective leadership fosters loyalty and sensitivity. The empirical results show that sensitivity and thoughtfulness need to be displayed by leaders in the SAPS. Shared values and behaviour tend to make people feel good about working for an organization and this leads to a feeling of commitment and loyalty that makes people want to achieve. "Cohesion and teamwork, loyalty and commitment, entrepreneurship and flexibility, rules and policies, goal orientation and competitiveness are what hold the organisation together" (Igo and Skitmore 2005:125). The acceptance of new ideas and perspectives is seen as facilitating organizational improvement (Baker, 2002). These aspects are all a part of a collective leadership personality.

The empirical results reveal that collective leaders should be innovative thinkers and should also have the ability to talk about themselves and their achievements. This stimulates competitiveness and striving towards continuous improvement.

The empirical results reiterate the sentiments that collective leaders are accommodating and prefer humility in the pursuit of common objectives and goals. The leadership is shared, decision and problem solving is done with group effort (see section in Chapter 3). Walton (2009) agrees with the importance of collective leadership by stating that through collective leadership an organisation will rate well on " job performance , job satisfaction, employee satisfaction, absenteeism, turnover and safety" improving all-round efficiency and effectiveness of the organisation.

The SAPS should encourage this type of leadership within the organisation and leaders should be aware of the need of collectivism within the SAPS. The

overall effect of collective leadership is largely a better performing organisation.

### **5.2.2. Constructive narcissism leadership personality**

As stated in Chapter 3, constructive narcissistic personality has the following personality traits: a sense of approval, being less manipulative, displaying determination and vigour. Constructive narcissists, however, as the study proved are effective mentors and are inspirational leaders. Their personality traits often encountered are stubbornness, pride, and distaste for censure. The empirical evidence indicates constructive narcissism exerts a positive influence on organisational performance ( $r=0.33$ ,  $p<0.001$ ).

The nature of a constructive narcissist entails the pursuit of their own advancement; they are self-aware and therefore always focus on their own advancement. Five weaknesses echo as problems, i.e. narcissists are hypersensitive to criticism, poor listeners, lacking in empathy, unwilling or unable to mentor or be mentored, and intensely competitive (Maccoby, 2000). It is as if they feel they have the right to control and possess others and to exploit them with no guilt feelings (Horney, 1939). Three traits a constructive narcissist displays are highlighted by Horney (1939). These aspects tie in with the items evaluated by the measuring instrument. Narcissistic personality exhibits the following aspects (see Table 4.3 in Chapter 4): grandiose sense of self-importance (NARC 8), unreasonable sense of entitlement (NARC 6) and arrogant behaviour directed towards others (NARC 7).

Annexure B indicates that the predominant personality traits are a superiority complex and high confidence, which may be mistaken for arrogance, and insisting on only the best performance. These aspects indicate that constructive narcissists have high standards. These are not necessarily good traits to most but they fuel competition and high performance amongst colleagues and workers, they know their ability and have high demands for job performance and this improves efficiency internally, the overall effect of positive organisational effectiveness as indicated by the analysis. The



organisational performance of police precincts would therefore be improved if the self-confidence of police officers could be enhanced and their insistence on high performance reinforced.

### **5.2.3. Masculine leadership personality**

The findings indicate that masculine personality traits do not have an effect on organisational performance. From Chapter 3 we gathered that masculinity means belligerence, toughness, self-assurance, self-directing, getting the job done, cognitive focus, and covetousness which are the main attributes of a masculine leadership personality (Eagly, 2007; Gershenoff and Foti, 2008).

The traits related to masculinity in Annexure B are feedback and assertiveness. Masculine leaders are considered domineering and commanding.

The empirical results indicate that masculine leadership has no effect on the organisational performance. This means that when a leader displays personality traits that are linked to masculinity within the SAPS, the organisation's performance will not be affected. Masculinity in the context of the present study means that this kind of leader always gives positive feedback and is very assertive. The latter traits and behaviour are often important in achieving good performance. The fact that these do not influence organisational performance positively could indicate a need for training among officers.

### **5.2.4. Transformational leadership personality**

As stated in Chapter 3, transformational leadership and visionary leadership are often viewed as the same (Zhu et al., 2005). It is reported that visionary leadership will result in high levels of cooperation, commitment, trust, motivation, and hence performance in the new organisational environments

(Zhu et al., 2005). The techniques associated with obtaining commitment are to capture the emotions and minds of the followers. The commitment becomes an emotional commitment. The leadership-follower relationship becomes balanced in this paradigm as the follower has a participative role in setting the vision and actively participates in decision-making processes.

Transformational leadership, according to Burns (1978), raises leaders and followers to higher levels of morality and motivation. Factors that appeal to followers are the high levels of ideals and value systems that transformational leadership enforces. Transformational leadership focuses on the needs of the work force and how their intrinsic needs are satisfied through their purpose within an organisation. The transformational leader wins the support of a follower, as proved by the current study. They hold high the value of an individual; create awareness of the importance of the organisation, its task, goals and objectives, they remove or re-direct the focus towards the organisational rather than themselves as leaders.

The appeal to social values thus encourages individuals to collaborate, rather than working as individuals. Transformational leadership is leading with integrity and authenticity that resonates with others, and inspires them to follow. The empirical results indicate that police officers are well aware of the importance of transformational leadership in the SAPS. The results indicate that as transformational leaders they endeavour to seek new opportunities for their institution and suggest ideas that challenge others to re-examine basic assumptions about work. These are marks of good leadership and should transcend the lower ranks of officers and colleagues. Transformational leadership should therefore be encouraged at all levels in the SAPS.

### **5.3 THE MAIN DETERMINANTS OF MANAGERIAL PERFORMANCE INTENT**

The main determinant of the performance intent of police officers is collective leadership. Constructive narcissism, masculinity, and transformational

leadership do not influence the performance intent of police officers in the SAPS.

### **5.3.1. Collective leadership personality**

The empirical results show that collective leadership has a significantly positive effect on the performance intent of SAPS officers. In other words, collective leadership increases their willingness to do their best in the future and to continuously think about ways to improve their job performance.

A collective leader gives special recognition (see page 15). SAPS should therefore encourage this level of leadership through its recruitment, training and promotional policies.

### **5.3.2. Constructive narcissistic leadership personality**

The empirical results show that the performance intent of SAPS police officers is not influenced by constructive narcissism, in other words, thinking he/she is better than others, believing he/she is superior to others and insisting on the best from himself/herself and from others. In the case of the first two characteristics, a good result was reflected, as leaders who exhibit these characteristics often trigger negative reactions from other people. However, as far as insisting only on the best job performance is concerned, it does not augur well for the individual performance of police officers. Everybody is generally expected to insist on the best performance from him/herself. So, if police officers do not expect this from themselves, they will not render good job performance. The insistence on good performance should be part of these officers performance management.

### **5.3.3. Masculine leadership personality**

The empirical results indicate that the performance intent of SAPS police officers is not influenced by masculine personality traits. In other words, providing others with positive feedback on their performance and being an assertive person does not influence the performance intent of SAPS police officers. To the extent that these are positive traits for police officers, this might reflect an area that needs training. Police officers should be encouraged and trained to give positive feedback in order to get the best out of their subordinates and colleagues. They should also be encouraged and trained to be assertive in situations that warrant assertiveness.

### **5.3.4. Transformational leadership personality**

The empirical results show that transformational leadership exerts a positive influence on the performance intent of SAPS officers. This means that their continuous search for new opportunities for the SAPS as well as their regular suggestions of ideas that challenge their subordinates and colleagues to re-examine their basic assumptions about work play a big role in their performance intentions. In other words, these police officers are thereby recognising the importance of these transformational leadership behaviours. This is therefore a good result for the SAPS, which should be expanded and reinforced.

## **5.4. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

Although the study has produced important findings with regard to improving organisational performance in the SAPS and the performance intent of police officers, some limitations in the study were identified. These limitations entail issues around (1) measuring instruments and (2) sample size.

As far as measuring instruments are concerned, the study also envisaged an investigation into the relationships between transactional leadership style, Machiavellianism and femininity, on the one hand, and the dependent variables (organisational performance and performance intent). Due to the lack of discriminant validity of these instruments, they had to be omitted from the hypothesised model. The use of improved measuring instruments for these variables might render improved results in follow-up studies.

The study was done on a sample of 90 police officers. Although this sample size was acceptable for the statistical analyses conducted in this study, it is recommended that a bigger sample be used in a follow-up study to further validate the findings of this study. It is also recommended that the sample be replicated on a national SAPS sample, as the present study was focused only on the police precincts in the Nelson Mandela Bay area. A national sample would strengthen the validity of the empirical findings of the present study.

## **5.5. CONCLUSION**

Taking into account the contextual literature and empirical findings it can be concluded that personality traits and leadership styles do influence organisational performance and performance intent. The aim of the study was to evaluate data collected within the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan area in five distinct police precincts, to investigate and effectively measure the level and impact personality traits and leadership styles have on organisational performance and performance intent.

The results indicate that collective leadership in particular has a positive effect on both organisational performance and performance intent. Recommendations made with regard to recruitment and selection processes, suggest that a leader should embody collective leadership personality traits in order to affect organisational performance and performance intent. The enhancement of the organisational performance through leadership/training

programmes should also encompass the development of collective leadership behaviour.

The empirical results revealed that the variables investigated in this study, namely collectivistic, constructive narcissistic and masculine leadership personality, as well as transformational leadership style, explained about 49% and 61 % respectively in the variance of organisational performance and managerial performance intent. This makes these variables very important in efforts to improve organisational performance and managerial performance in the Nelson Mandela Bay SAPS precincts. By focusing on these variables (masculine personality traits to a lesser extent) the organisational effectiveness of these precincts will be improved.

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## ANNEXURE A : COVERING LETTER



Dear Respondent

I am a post-graduate student studying towards my MBA (Masters in Business Administration) at the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University Business School. The aim of my study is to improve the organizational effectiveness of public institutions in South Africa, but more particularly in Nelson Mandela Bay. I believe that my study would make a contribution to improving the management of public institutions as well as the service delivery to the South African population.

You are part of our selected sample of respondents whose views we seek on the above-mentioned matter. We would therefore appreciate it if you could answer a few questions. It should not take more than twenty minutes of your time and we want to thank you in advance for your co-operation.

There are no correct or incorrect answers. Please answer the questions as accurately as possible. For each statement, tick the number which best describes your experience or perception. For example, if you strongly agree with the statement, tick the number 5. If you strongly disagree with the statement, tick the number 1. Tick only one answer for each statement and answer all questions please. Please note also that the term "organisation" refers to the corporation you work for.

Thank you very much.

Sandy-Lee Chetty

To verify the authenticity of the study, please contact Prof CA Arnolds at 041-5043825

## **ANNEXURE B: THE MEASURING INSTRUMENTS**

### **Collectivist leadership personality**

I give special recognition when others' work is very good

It is important to be loyal to one's colleagues

It is important to exhibit correct behaviour (proper manners and etiquette) regardless of how one really feels towards one's colleagues

It is important to co-operate with one's colleagues

I am a very loyal person

I am sensitive to the needs of others

I stimulate others to rethink the way they do things

I like to talk about myself and my achievements

### **Constructive Narcissistic Leadership Personality**

I feel that I am better than others, no matter what their condition

I'm a superior person

I insist only on the best performance

### **Reactive Narcissistic Leadership Personality**

I don't mind bragging about my talents and accomplishments

I'm better than most people, and I know it

### **Masculine Leadership Personality**

I always give positive feedback when others perform well

I am a very assertive person

### **Transformational Leadership Personality Style**

I am always seeking new opportunities for my institution

I often suggest ideas that challenge others to re-examine some of their basic assumptions about work

### **Performance Intent**

I will probably do my best to perform in my job in the future

I often think of improving my job performance

I will actively improve my job performance in the future

I intend to do a lot more work in the future

### **Organisational Performance**

My institution uses its technology and equipment effectively in order to achieve service delivery

My institution is successfully achieving its delivery target

My institution is using its physical resources (land and building) effectively in order to achieve service delivery

My institution has successfully increased its contribution to service delivery

My institution has a strong image in the community it serves

My institution is successfully developing our methods of service delivery

My institution is using its financial resources effectively in order to achieve service delivery

My institution is using its human resources effectively in order to achieve service delivery

Through my institution, the standard of living of the community it serves has improved over time

My institution delivers value for money by the services it provides